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ABSTRACT

Using ethnographic case study methodology (involving open-ended interviews, participant observation, and document analysis) theories of administrative organization, processes, and behavior were tested during a three-week observation of a model comprehensive (experimental) high school. Although the study is limited in its general application, it has generated grounded theory that challenges several formal theories including Hage's theory of complex organizations, social systems theory, decision theory, change theory, and Herzberg's motivation theory. The data indicate that low complexity in an institution does not preclude high productivity and that political processes play an important role in social control, problem identification, and decision-making. The findings also suggest that different concepts of leadership, change and decision-making apply at each stage of a school's evolution and that the congruence of these factors is vital to functional change. Finally, the overuse of motivators was found to contribute to dissatisfaction among staff. The research confirmed that a school's design, size, staff, teacher adviser program, and principal can all contribute to an open climate. (Author/WD)

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Technical Report No. 556

AN ETHNOGRAPHIC CASE STUDY OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION, PROCESSES, AND BEHAVIOR IN A MODEL COMPREHENSIVE HIGH SCHOOL

by

Richard N. Zimman

Report from the Project on
Studies of Administration and Organization for Instruction

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September 1980

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- developing and demonstrating improved instructional strategies, processes, and materials for students, teachers, and school administrators
- providing assistance to educators which helps transfer the outcomes of research and development to improved practice in local schools and teacher education institutions

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS v

LIST OF FIGURES xi

ABSTRACT xiii

CHAPTER

I. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY 1

Background of the Study 3

Statement of the Problem 5

Significance of the Study 5

Overview of the Study 7

II. DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY 8

Rationale for the Methodology Utilized 8

Selection of the School 10

Description of the Selected School 14

City and District Background 14
School Description 16
Administrative Arrangements 17
Organization for Instruction and Student Advising 20
Educational Programming for the Individual Student 22
Curricular Arrangements 23
Experiential Learning and Career Education 24
Evaluating Student Learning and Educational Programs 24
Student Decision-Making Arrangements 25
Home-School-Community [illegible]tions 26
Internal and External [illegible]ort Arrangements . 26
Continuing Research and Development 27

Chapter Page

Description of the Data Collection Method 27

The Initial Interview Schedule 28

The Revised Interview Schedule 30

The Field-Related Propositions 32

Observation Procedures 35

Analysis of Documents 36

Data Gathering Procedure 37

Analysis of the Data 42

Limitations of the Study 44

III. PRESENTATION OF DATA 46

Administrative Organization 46

Proposition One: School Design and Size . . . 47

Proposition Two: District Centralization . . 56

Proposition Three: Organization for Instruction 64

Administrative Processes 78

Proposition Four: Communication Networks . . 79

Proposition Five: Staff Development 91

Proposition Six: Decision Making 102

Proposition Seven: Home-School-Community Relations 115

Proposition Eight: Special Programs 124

Administrative Behavior 132

Proposition Nine: Leadership 132

Chapter Page

IV. PRESENTATION OF RELATED THEORY AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA 144

Axiomatic Organizational Theory 144

Social Systems Theory 154

Organizational Climate 162

Leadership Theory 166

Decision Theory 172

Change Theory 181

Motivation Theory 186

Administrative Processes 190

Planning 191

Allocating 191

Stimulating 192

Coordinating 192

Evaluating 193

Grounded Theory 194

Modifications of Formal Theories 195

Axiomatic Organizational Theory 195
Social Systems Theory 197
Decision Theory 200
Change Theory 202
Motivation Theory 204

Interaction of Theory in Grounded Practice . . 207

Germination Stages 213
Initiation-Evaluation Stage 214
Implementation-Initiation Stage 214
Routinization-Implementation Stage 214

Chapter Page

Refinement-Routinization Stage 215
Renewal-Refinement Stage 215
Evaluation-Renewal Stage 216

V. OVERVIEW, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS 217

Overview of the Study 217

Conclusions and Implications for Practice 219

Axiomatic Organizational Theory 219

Social Systems Theory 220

Organizational Climate 222

Leadership Theory 222

Decision Theory 223

Change Theory 224

Motivation Theory 226

Administrative Processes 226

Grounded Theory 227

Implications for Further Research 228

BIBLIOGRAPHY 231

APPENDICES 244

Appendix A--Abstract of the Proposed Study 244

Appendix B--Interview Schedule 247

Appendix C--Revised Interview Schedule 252

Appendix D--Informed Consent Form 255

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
4.1	Model of the Major Dimensions of Behavior in a Social System	156
4.2	Basic Dimensions of the Decision-Making Process . . .	173
4.3	Stages in the Decision-Making Process	175
4.4	Model for Shared Decision Making	178
4.5	Social Systems Model Expanded to Include Proposed Political Dimensions	199
4.6	Change Theory--Leadership and Member Phases	204
4.7	Model of the Relationship Between Leadership, Change, and Decision-Making Process	209

10

Abstract

AN ETHNOGRAPHIC CASE STUDY OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION, PROCESSES, AND BEHAVIOR IN A MODEL COMPREHENSIVE HIGH SCHOOL

Richard Neil Zimman

Under the Supervision of Professor James M. Lipham

The major purposes of this study were: (1) to describe and explain the administrative organization, processes, and behavior; and (2) to generate grounded theory about the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in a model comprehensive high school. The school selected for this study was nationally recognized as a model for implementing individualized learning programs and other facets of innovative secondary schooling as developed at the Wisconsin Research and Development Center.

The data were gathered using ethnographic case study methodology including open-ended interviews, participant observation, and document analysis. The researcher, together with two co-researchers, spent three weeks on site and participated daily in the social system of the school. This study provided an understanding of the administrative organization, processes, and behavior within a model comprehensive high school, the impact of the administration on the school and generalizable propositions

based on grounded theory regarding the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in secondary schools.

The main conclusions of the study were as follows:

1. Organic organizations can have low complexity and high productivity.
2. Social systems theory should be modified to include new political dimensions.
3. A school's design, size, staff, teacher advisor program, and principal behavior all contribute to the creation and maintenance of an open climate in the school.
4. Decision involvement is based on interest, expertise, and representative needs of a constituency.
5. Problem identification in the decision-making process is both rational and political.
6. The principal's interests and political base impact heavily on the decision-making process of the school.
7. Change models should be modified to include the "germination stages" of leaders.
8. The steps in the change process differ for leaders and members; an appropriate mix of leadership styles and stages is therefore necessary at the different steps of the change process.

9. Leadership, change, and decision involvement are interactive, and organizational change is most functional when there is congruence among these dimensions.
10. Motivating factors can become so intense that they cause dissatisfaction and act as hygiene factors.

As a result of these conclusions, numerous implications for practice and further research were suggested.

APPROVED: ____________________

DATE: August 13, 1980

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

American high schools have been examined by many researchers and practitioners over the past decade in an attempt to understand and improve this traditional institution in our changing society. This study was conducted with that same sense of mission and sought to understand the impact of administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior on a senior high school that has pursued educational programming for the individual student.

The Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Individualized Schooling has conducted a series of studies designed to identify the factors needed to produce the desired comprehensive objectives of secondary schooling (Klausmeier, 1979). Previous studies relating to secondary schooling completed at the R & D Center examined facilitative environments, staff development, change, decision involvement, and decision making (Daresh, 1978; Lehr, 1979; Neiner, 1978; Speed, 1979; Watkins, 1978). While these studies helped foster a better understanding of secondary schools, the reports were limited in scope by restricting their focus to a single variable.

The purpose of this study and two companion studies (Artis, 1980; Brittenham, 1980) was to gain an understanding of the administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior within a school that has implemented educational programming for the individual student. Ethnographic research techniques, including in-depth interviews, participant observation, and document analysis, were used to understand the framework within which those in the school interpret their thoughts, feelings, and actions (Wilson, 1977). While other studies utilizing similar techniques gained a comprehensive view of the organization and operation of schools (Cusick, 1973; Jackson, 1968; Sarason, 1971; Wolcott, 1973), this study focused specifically on the administrative impact on a secondary school pursuing educational programming for the individual student.

The data were analyzed according to the precepts of ethnography (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975; Glaser & Strauss, 1967), and grounded theory was generated from the data gathered at the research site. The grounded theory was then analyzed and compared to existing formal theory. This comparison served to either confirm the formal theories or suggest variations in the theories. New grounded theory was developed when relationships to formal theory did not emerge.

This chapter includes the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the significance of the study, and an overview of the study.

Background of the Study

Before 1977 the efforts of the Wisconsin Research and Development Center had concentrated on the process of individualized schooling in elementary schools. Individually Guided Education (IGE) was introduced as an alternative form of education and was adopted by over 2,000 elementary schools throughout the United States.

In the winter of 1977, the Research and Development Center initiated an extension of individualized schooling to secondary schools. A set of process objectives was developed by Klausmeier (1977) and was used as a framework for the development of a model for the renewal and improvement of secondary schools. In the spring of 1977, participants in a conference on secondary schools held at the Research and Development Center were asked to critique these process objectives for desirability and feasibility of implementation. Based upon this initial work, two studies (Klausmeier, T., 1978; Maier, 1978) were conducted in six junior high and five senior high schools to determine the desirability and feasibility of implementing the process objectives.

Maier's study determined that although a high level of desirability was expressed for the implementation of the process objectives developed by Klausmeier, a very low level of feasibility was perceived for such implementation in senior high schools. The complex inhibiting issues which were identified led the Research and Development Center to begin exploring alternative modes of administering and organizing instruction in senior high schools that did attempt to individualize the instruction of students. Studies by Daresh (1978), Neiner (1978), and Watkins (1978) examined specific aspects of the administration and organization of six senior high schools that had attempted to implement educational programming for the individual student.

This study and two companion studies (Artis, 1980; Brittenham, 1980) evolved from the above research. Previous studies illustrated the need for a comprehensive description and explanation of the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in secondary schools that attempt to implement educational programming for the individual student. This study, the two companion studies by Artis (1980) and Brittenham (1980), and other research being conducted by the Secondary School Renewal Project of the Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Individualized Schooling, should provide a comprehensive picture of administrative organization, processes, and behavior in secondary schools pursuing educational programming for the individual student. In turn, alternative models of administrative organization will be offered to secondary schools seeking to individualize schooling for students.

Statement of the Problem

One purpose of this study was to describe and explain the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in a senior high school that attempted to implement educational programming for individual students. Another purpose of the study was to generate grounded theory about administrative organization, processes, and behavior in the school used as a research site. The study consisted of an intensive, comprehensive analysis of the administrative impact on a single senior high school and used ethnographic field methodology to observe, describe, and analyze the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in the school.

No further definition of the problem was attempted prior to collecting the data, as such an effort would have been antithetical to the ethnographic approach (Wolcott, 1973; Cusick, 1973; Wilson, 1977). Grounded theoretical propositions were generated from the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), and were used to confirm, refine, and place more emphasis on formal theoretical constructs.

Significance of the Study

This study was designed to investigate the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in a senior high school that attempted to implement educational programming for the individual student. The study was deemed to be significant for the following reasons:

1. The findings described and explained fully the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors in a senior high school that attempted to implement educational programming for the individual student.
2. The findings generated grounded theoretical propositions about the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in a senior high school that attempted to implement educational programming for the individual student.
3. The findings supported existing formal theory, highlighted needed emphasis on some aspects of existing formal theory, and identified needed modifications of some aspects of existing formal theory.
4. The findings should have relevance for practicing school administrators because they identify organizational structures and corresponding processes and behaviors necessary to establish alternative administrative arrangements.
5. The findings should help provide focus for further research by identifying important variables related to administrative organization, processes, and behavior in senior high schools that attempt to implement educational programming for the individual student.

Overview of the Study

This chapter included an introduction to the study, the background to the study, the statement of the problem, and the significance of the study.

Chapter II deals with the design and methodology of the study. Chapter III presents and describes the data. Chapter IV includes a presentation of the relevant formal theory and an analysis of the data. Chapter V is comprised of an overview of the study, conclusions drawn from the study, and implications for practice and further research.

CHAPTER II

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter contains a description of the design and methodology used in the study. There are five sections including: a rationale for the methodology utilized, a description of the school selection process, a summary of the data collection methods, a delineation of the data analysis process, and a consideration of the limitations of the study.

Rationale for the Methodology Utilized

This study used ethnographic research techniques to gain an understanding of the administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior within a model comprehensive secondary school. Methods included in-depth interviews, daily observations, and document analysis.

Ethnographic field studies have been described by Kerlinger (1973) as "ex post facto scientific inquiries aimed at discovering the relations and interactions among sociological, psychological, and educational variables in real social structures." Ethnography seeks understanding through qualitative methods, such as participant observations, open-ended interviews, and personal documents.

Ethnographic case studies focus on two levels--description and explanation. The ethnographer is on the scene to describe what he or she sees, hears, and reads, and then expands his or her descriptions from accounts of the situation by the subjects, usually obtained in lengthy in-depth interviews. In addition the researcher is constantly trying to make sense of what he or she observes by seeking the subject's explanation of what has occurred. Thus, the situation is fully described through the senses of both the researcher and the subjects and is also explained from both points of view (Cusick, 1973).

The ethnographer is trying to develop rational explanations of human action. Wehlage (1978) declared that the purpose of field study research is to develop generalizations which describe what people think and, given their perception of reality, why they act the way they do. In the process, the researcher is trying to discover what it is about the structure of schools which limits and shapes and makes more likely the constructions people acquire.

This study used the ethnographic field study methodology including participant observation, open-ended interviews, and document analysis to analyze the administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior in a model comprehensive high school to develop a wholistic view of the administrative impact on the school. This analysis enabled grounded theory to be generated concerning the administrative aspects of secondary schools. Glaser and Strauss (1967) defined grounded theory as being generated from the data observed and collected through rigorous research. Hypotheses and concepts came from the data and were systematically worked out in relation to the data during the course of the research. Categories, properties, and hypotheses about administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior emerged from the data. Once developed, incidents applicable to each category were compared; categories and properties were integrated; limitations concerning the developing theory were defined; and finally, grounded theory about administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior was offered. While in most instances the grounded theory confirmed existing formal theory about administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior, some modifications of existing formal theory emerged and some new theory was developed.

Selection of the School

The senior high school chosen for this ethnographic case study had a reputation for being innovative and in the forefront of individualized instruction. The first step in this selection process was to identify schools that met at least five of the following operational criteria derived from the list of program components for IGE/Secondary (Klausmeier, 1979):

1. Comprehensive Objective 1--Administrative Arrangements. Decision-making groups were formed that included district committees and councils as well as building committees and councils.

2. Comprehensive Objective 2--Organization for Instruction and Student Advising. Instruction and Advisory Units were formed consisting of 50 to 200 students and a cooperative team of two to five teachers, usually in the required curricular areas or courses.

3. Comprehensive Objective 3--Educational Programming for the Individual Student. The educational program had three facets which included planning for each student's individual programs, providing objective based instruction that meets the requirements of the planned program, and evaluating the student's progress in achieving desired outcomes for further direction.

4. Comprehensive Objective 4--Curricular Arrangements. A curriculum was arranged that was sufficiently comprehensive and flexible so that each student, with the guidance of the student's teacher advisor and parents, could take a total program of courses and other activities that was suited to the individual student's educational needs and other characteristics, and that also met school, district, and state requirements.

5. Comprehensive Objective 5--Experiential Learning and Career Education. A program of community learning activities and work experiences directly related to the characteristics of the school population and the community was planned, implemented, and evaluated at district, school, and teaching levels.

5. Comprehensive Objective 6--Evaluating Student Learning and Educational Programs. Records were kept on students' progress

toward attaining the objectives of the units, classes, or courses in which they were enrolled, and each student's total educational program was monitored and improved through systematic evaluation.

7. Comprehensive Objective 7--Student Decision-Making Arrangements. Students progressively assumed responsibility for working independently with a lesser amount of adult direction and control. They also assumed responsibility for making decisions about their course objectives and activities, their complete educational programs, and their career preparation, including community learning activities and work experiences.

8. Comprehensive Objective 8--Home-School-Community Relations. Cooperative efforts and effective communications between the school and the community were fostered.

9. Comprehensive Objective 9--Internal and External Support Arrangements. The environment for learning and instruction within the school and for work and nonwork educational experiences in the community was enriched through the intellectual, technical, and material support provided by the school and district, and by external agencies, such as the state education agency and teacher education institutions.

10. Comprehensive Objective 10--Continuing Research and Development. Student learning and personality development; curricular, instructional, and student-advising arrangements; school-community relations and community educative experiences; and

administrative-organizational arrangements were improved through continuous research and development conducted by school personnel and cooperating individuals and agencies.

Only senior high schools with grades 9 through 12 which had implemented five or more of the above components of individualized schooling were considered. An initial list of potential research sites was developed through an analysis of the work of Daresh (1978), Neiner (1978), and Watkins (1978). Additionally, professional journals were examined, national and state agencies were contacted, and experts in the field of American secondary education were contacted for recommendations concerning senior high schools that might be appropriate for this study. Approximately 15 schools were identified as possible research sites.

Telephone contact was made with each school on this list. During the initial telephone contact, the researchers asked first how many of the operational criteria the school satisfied, and second, whether the principal was receptive toward participating in this research project. Abstracts which outlined the nature of the proposed research (Appendix A) were sent to those schools which met the criteria and which were willing to consider participating in the study. The list of schools was then narrowed to eight.

Members of the research team visited the eight candidate schools. Final decisions regarding the participating schools were based on their initial interest, perceptions of the research team after the visits, and the demographic characteristics of the school. The final research site was chosen for its ability to meet the comprehensive components, its willingness to participate, its geographic location, and the size of its student population.

The school selected for this study was located in a mid-sized community with an enrollment of approximately 900 students. The schools selected for the two companion studies were in a suburban area with a school enrollment of approximately 1,900 students and in an urban area with a school enrollment of approximately 2,800, respectively.

The proper district-level administrators and the building principal were contacted by the research team for final visitation arrangements. The visit was scheduled so that the researcher and the companion researchers could spend three full weeks on site during the first semester of the school year.

Description of the Selected School

This section contains a description of the school selected for this study. First, it includes descriptions of the city, the district, and the school itself. Then, the school is described according to the ten comprehensive components of secondary schooling (Klausmeier, 1979).

City and district background. East High School is located in Maryville, a growing community of 65,000 people. There are nearly 1,000 businesses located in the city, including several industrial parks and a large, enclosed shopping mall. Although many people work in Maryville, the majority commute daily to either of the two large urban areas located within an hour's drive.

Residents live in one of five neighborhood village areas, each served by a local shopping center and public schools. The housing in each village is a mixture of federally subsidized rental units, townhouses, single family dwellings, custom-designed homes, and condominiums. The socioeconomic makeup of the community includes a substantial minority of Black families who have recently moved from nearby inner-city ghetto areas, as well as a large number of white and Black middle-class professionals and civil service employees. Single parent households are also relatively common in Maryville. The range from lower-class to middle- and upper-class inhabitants of various racial and ethnic backgrounds is in contrast to the white population of the surrounding rural area.

The school district encompasses the city of Maryville and a large rural area surrounding the city, including some small towns. The fiscally dependent district is governed by a board of education whose five members are elected to six-year terms. The district's "neighborhood school" philosophy has resulted in 27 elementary schools, 11 middle schools, 8 high schools, a vocational-technical high school, and a special education school. The district's enrollment is approximately 25,000 students in grades K-12. Of these 48 schools, half are located in Maryville, as is the county's comunity college. The district's "open enrollment" policy allows students to enroll in any school outside their assigned attendance area which has an enrollment of less than 95 percent of capacity.

School description. East High School enrolls 900 students in grades 9 through 12. Most students come from middle- and upper-class homes. About 30 percent of the students are Black, and come from families of varying economic status. Approximately 80 percent of the students enter college after graduation. About one-third of the students are involved in at least one gifted and talented program in either mathematics, science, creative-critical thinking, drama, instrumental music, or vocal music.

The staff of East High School is comprised of a principal, a vice principal, an administrative assistant, 50 teachers, 3 guidance counselors, 2 media specialists, and 12 instructional aides. Approximately half of the faculty have earned their master's degrees. The district staff includes a superintendent, 3 assistant superintendents, and 39 directors, coordinators, and supervisors.

The school opened in September, 1971, as the first of two high schools within Maryville's city limits. The two-story, round building design is based on the open-space concept. The hub of the school is the administrative office complex and staff planning area and lounge on the first floor and the media center on the second floor. Classroom pod areas are located around the outer rim of the building with the auditorium and gymnasium flanking either side of the classroom building. Although interior walls have since been constructed in classroom areas, the original openness has been preserved due to the balcony design of the second floor circular hallway, enabling people to see activities in the other floor's corridor. The building, carpeted throughout, is situated on 30 acres of playing fields, but cramped quarters inside require storage closets and storerooms to be utilized as classrooms and activity centers.

Administrative arrangements. The administrative arrangements at East High School include the administrative team and eleven teachers who serve [illegible] departmental chairpersons with responsibilities in either their respective department or broad field.

The administrative team is comprised of the principal, vice principal, and administrative assistant. Each member of the team has specific responsibilities assigned by the principal. The team meets weekly on a regular basis and has frequent daily contact. Together, the team serves as the general administrative staff of the school.

The principal is responsible for selecting, assigning, supervising, and evaluating all school personnel. Other staff personnel functions include staff development responsibilities and staff communications through weekly bulletins and the faculty handbook. As the school's instructional leader, the principal supervises and evaluates all curricular programs. In the area of business management, the principal coordinates the preparation of budgetary requests of the departments and is responsible for the school's fiscal administration. In the area of home-school-community relations, the principal serves on the executive board of the parent's organization, assists membership drives, and maintains regular contact with parents through evening meetings. The principal's responsibilities in student personnel overlap with the vice principal's main tasks of student discipline and building supervision. As the chief spokesperson of the school, the principal is also expected to act as the liaison with the central office, board of education, and feeder junior high schools.

The staff expects the principal to organize, coordinate, and administer the day-to-day affairs of the school. Moreover, the staff expects the principal to exert strong leadership in the area of curriculum and instruction. General supervision and attendance at extracurricular activities is an expectation held for the principal by the school community.

The vice principal's responsibilities are mostly in the area of student personnel. As the main disciplinarian of the school, the vice principal is responsible for student behavior, conduct, tardiness, suspensions, grievances, detentions, and general building supervision. Plant management, including the supervision and evaluation of custodians, is also the responsibility of the vice principal. The vice principal assists the principal in the supervision and evaluation of the staff and in extracurricular supervision. The school community expects the vice principal to handle student discipline fairly and sensibly, and ensure building cleanliness and utility.

The administrative assistant is responsible for staff and student attendance and scheduling. Other responsibilities include management of the student activities program, bus transportation, food services, and standardized testing. Assisting the other administrators with staff supervision, extracurricular supervision, and student discipline are additional responsibilities. Above all, the administrative assistant is expected to facilitate implementation of the school's educational plan through appropriate scheduling.

Departmental chairpersons are appointed by the principal to coordinate the staff and program of a department or a broad field area. In return for release from one or more classes, chairpersons are responsible for departmental organization, department-administration liaison, departmental budget, new staff selection, instructional improvement, and inter- and intra-departmental communication. As members of the teaching staff, departmental chairpersons receive a small stipend for assuming these additional duties. Their major role revolves around the weekly meetings of the Advisory Council, comprised of the 11 departmental chairpersons and the principal.

The Advisory Council is the administration's main vehicle for staff input into decisions on school issues. After topics are introduced at the weekly meetings, chairpersons gather feedback from their respective staff members and relay this information at subsequent meetings. Although the Advisory Council lacks any formal organizational status, it has been created and is used by principals as a sounding board and collegial decision-making body. How seriously the administration takes the Advisory Council's recommendations and how strongly the recommendations are made differ from issue to issue.

Faculty meetings are held monthly if the principal perceives a need for a meeting. Although many decisions on important school issues have been made at these meetings, the specific functions of the faculty meetings and Advisory Council differ with each principal's personal organizational plan.

Organization for instruction and student advising. Every student at East High School is assigned to a multigraded advisor group headed by a teacher advisor. The group consists of 20 to 25 students and meets for 25 minutes every morning between the first and second period. After schoolwide announcements are made over the public address system, advisors read the daily bulletin, explain any developments of concern, and then spend the remainder of the period completing advisory paperwork and bookkeeping, and conferencing with individual students.

The advisor program has four goals--academic advisement, personal-social growth, home-school-community relations, and intraschool communication. The advisor helps the student select courses, monitors the student's academic progress, and guides the student through a four-year high school program. As the most important and only constant adult contact in the school, the teacher advisor develops a personal relationship with students and helps students' personal and social growth. Communication between the school and the home is funneled through the advisor as the person who best knows the student. All of these activities and responsibilities mean that staff members find it necessary to communicate frequently with each other to fulfill their advisory duties.

Most teachers serve as advisors, although they have the option to supervise the student store, student government, or similar time-consuming activities. The group of teacher advisors is divided into three clusters, with each of them headed by a guidance counselor. Each counselor helps his or her advisors plan activities and handle students with particular problems. Counselors also supervise the school's testing program, maintain the permanent student records, and supervise parent conferences. The counseling system generally serves as a support system for the teacher advisors.

Record keeping is a major daily task of advisors. Every course is divided into 12 segments. Whenever a student completes a segment, the subject teacher sends the advisor a segment completion slip as proof of completion and credit. Advisors are responsible for recording this information in the advisee's record. In addition, mid-quarter deficiency reports and quarterly report cards are issued by the advisors.

Educational programming for the individual student. East High School's philosophy is based on the concept of continuous progress for each student. Under this program students may begin study of a subject at any time of the year and complete it when they demonstrate mastery of the skills, concepts, and knowledge associated with the course. Each course, divided into 12 segments, has many options available to the individual student depending on their interests and ability. Students progress at their own rate through a course of study tailored to their needs. These self-paced courses are objective based.

The majority of courses, however, are now based on the concept of group pacing, utilizing a traditional, group-oriented approach. Although these courses are still divided into 12 segments, the class receives instruction together and progresses together through each segment. In this familiar instructional mode all students have the same amount of time to learn the skills, concepts, and knowledge associated with the course. Some of these courses are also objective based.

Students have the option of enrolling in self-paced, continuous progress classes or group-paced, inquiry-based classes. Parents, advisors, and teachers help students make final choices based on their individual cases. In some instances a choice is not possible because a course may be offered in only one format.

Curricular arrangements. The curricular arrangements at East High School revolve around an extensive number of course offerings and flexible scheduling. Most classes are multigraded.

The graduation requirement of 20 Carnegie units is mandated by the state. Students must successfully complete four credits in English, three in social studies, two in mathematics, two in science, one in physical education, and eight electives.

Students can choose from over 150 courses because most staff members teach three or four different courses during the day, while some teach that many in a single self-paced class period. Programs in special education for the gifted and talented are also offered, as well as over 25 courses at the district vocational-technical high school. A cooperative program with the nearby community college enables students to enroll in advanced level courses for college credit.

Flexible scheduling is based on the continuous progress concept that students do not have to report to a subject every day since much of the work is individualized on an independent study basis. Students, therefore, have the opportunity to attend three different courses during the same class period, since two meet twice a week and one meets once a week. Possible programs range from the basic requirement of 20 credits for those entering the work force immediately after graduation to 34 credits for those attending some four-year colleges and universities. This flexibility depends on a significant number of the school's courses being offered on a continuous progress basis.

In addition to academic courses, East High School maintains an active extracurricular program. Athletics, music groups, dramatics, publications, and activity clubs present numerous opportunities for students to become involved in nonacademic aspects of school life.

Experiential learning and career education. The Independent Service Program at East High School allows students to earn elective credit (beyond the 20 credits required for graduation) for volunteer service in the school or community. Considered to be enrichment activities which will make students more aware of community resources and responsible roles in the community, the Independent Service Program has many options available. Students may volunteer as tutors and aides at East or other neighboring schools, aides at community day care centers, recreational aides at centers for retarded adults and autistic children, or hospital volunteers. Large numbers of East students have participated in this community work experience program.

Evaluating student learning and educational programs. Daily monitoring of each student's program and progress by the advisor ensures that students are evaluated individually on a continuous basis. Advisors help students select personal goals and plan individual educational programs around those objectives. Programs are revised and updated based on the student's performance and plans for the future. Schedule changes are therefore very common and easily made.

Student decision-making arrangements. Students have primary responsibility for their own educational programs. Advisors, parents, and teachers help students develop the decision-making skills necessary for assuming individual responsibility for one's own goals, courses, and progress. As a continuous progress school, students are faced with a multitude of daily decisions concerning course work and personal actions.

Students unable to handle responsibility are often referred to the school's contract room. This form of in-school suspension from classes is designed to encourage referred students to accept responsibility for their own actions. This is accomplished through the use of individual student-designed contracts for behavior. Once approved by the contract room supervisor (the administrative assistant and selected department chairpersons) students are obligated to follow their own prescriptive plan under penalty of the punishment they have written into their contract.

Student participation in the formal decision-making structure of the school is quite limited. The Student Government Association (SGA) is comprised of an executive committee and a general assembly. The executive committee consists of five student-elected officers, six cabinet members appointed by the officers, and one class representative chosen by the students of each respective grade level. The general assembly includes a representative from each advisor group, ten students elected at large, and a representative from any organization in the school desiring representation. Powers of the SGA are restricted to student activities and liaison activities between the students and staff. All SGA decisions are subject to veto by the principal.

Home-school-community relations. The Parent-Teacher-Student Association (PTSA) is intended to provide a mechanism for parental participation in the formal school structure. The PTSA publishes a quarterly newsletter and meets monthly. Membership in the organization is very small, and meetings have low attendance.

The advisor system bears most of the responsibility for maintaining open communication between the school and the home. Advisors are expected to contact their advisees' parents monthly for continuous contact through each student's four-year high school career. The counselors supervise the home contact aspect of the advisor system and require monthly reports from each advisor listing the home contacts made.

Internal and external support arrangements. East High School was designed and built as a model school for the district and the state. The school also participated in a nationwide project for innovative schools sponsored by a national association. Currently, the model school designation and program is strictly a district commitment. As such, the school is encouraged to experiment with new curriculum, staffing, and programmatic ideas and disseminate the results for use by other district high schools. Its national reputation has also brought a steady flow of visitors to the school. The most recent budget allocates five extra staff positions and ten extra paraprofessional positions to the school for accomplishing its model school mission.

Continuing research and development. The district central office employs a full-time director of program evaluation, research, and development to supervise the continuing research and development activities of the district. Particular emphasis has been placed on providing adequate measurement scales for student achievement in district programs. Resulting data have caused changes to be made in some school programs. Continued evaluation by outside research teams has also been a consistent district policy with the result that schools are constantly improving their educational programs and evaluating their direction and progress.

Description of the Data Collection

The data for this study were gathered through the use of interviews, participant observations, and document analysis. In terms of actual instrumentation, as a device for gathering the data, an initial interview schedule (Appendix B) was developed before site entry and a revised interview schedule (Appendix C) was developed after one week on site in the school. Field-related propositions were then developed and validated after two weeks on site in the school.

In addition, the researchers used participant observations, where specific individuals were shadowed for specified periods of time, and the actions and words of that individual were recorded verbatim. Documents concerning recent school life, curriculum guides, school forms, and school announcements were also gathered.

The following sections describe the initial interview schedule, the revised interview schedule, the field-related propositions, observation procedure, and documents gathered from the field. The final section will describe the actual procedure used by the researcher in determining exactly who to interview, who to observe, how to alter the interview schedule, and the tentative propositions to be validated.

The Initial Interview Schedule

The initial interview schedule was developed by the researcher and two colleagues before entry into the school. This schedule was designed to gather information about the administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior in the school as perceived by the members of the educational community of the school. Interviews were conducted on site by three researchers (the author and two colleagues) and normally lasted for approximately two hours, although some interviews lasted as long as six hours. The interview schedule contained both open-ended and focused questions. The following open-ended questions were asked:

1. Discuss the strengths and positive aspects of the school.
2. Discuss the weaknesses and concerns you have about the school.
3. Discuss the major issues facing the school.

The three open-ended questions often served as the impetus for eliciting from the interviewee the information necessary to answer the focused questions. If such was not the case, then the researcher asked the interviewee to comment about the administrative impact on the curriculum philosophy and design of the school, the administrative staff relations, the administrative impact on the teacher advisor program, the administrative impact on the home-school-community relations, and the administrative influence on the evolution of the school's program.

The initial interview schedule was closely followed by the research team during the first week on site. Probes were used only to ascertain the meaning the respondents assigned to various events and to determine what the subjects said about the way things ought to be (Wolcott, 1975). The questions, both open-ended and focused, were framed in general terms in order to avoid imposing preconceptions and perhaps misconceptions on the interviewees (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975).

Approximately 25 interviews were conducted during the first week by the three members of the research team. During the first week, every effort was made to interview all building-level administrators, a representative number of teachers, reputationally identified parents, and student leaders. Additionally, two district-level administrators were interviewed during the first week.

The Revised Interview Schedule

The research team interviewed many administrators, representative teachers, parents identified reputationally as knowledgeable about the school, and elected student leaders. The researchers began to cultivate what Wilson (1977) called an empathetic understanding with the participants and a unique insight into the social setting of the school.

At the end of the first week, the research team withdrew from the school and analyzed the data generated through the initial interviews, daily observations, and reading of documents related to the school. By analyzing the data, the researchers began to ascertain categories, properties, and hypotheses about general problems facing the school (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

A second, revised interview schedule (Appendix C) was developed out of the tentatively identified categories, properties, and hypotheses about general problems facing East High School. This new interview schedule was then used as the basic interview format along with the initial three open-ended questions from the first interview schedule. The following questions emerged from the analysis of the data after the first week at East High School:

1. How effective was the advisor system?
2. How effective was the staff orientation and development program?
3. What impact did the leadership changes have on the school?
4. What leadership styles were used by the principals?
5. What impact did the instructional space have on the school's program?
6. What was the role of students in the school's decision-making process?
7. What was the role of staff in the school's decision-making process?
8. Why was continuous progress not successful for some students?
9. What factors contributed to the school climate?
10. How were parents involved in the school?
11. What was the impact of the school's design and size on the educational program?
12. What was the impact of the district board of education and central office on the school's program?

Finally, each of the 40 respondents interviewed according to this revised interview schedule were asked to comment about what in their view would improve the administrative structure, administrative processes, and administrative behavior at the school.

The revised interview schedule was used by the research team during the second week of interviewing and the first two days of the third week. Forty people were interviewed with this interview schedule, including the remainder of the building teachers, randomly selected paraprofessionals, selected district-level administrators, volunteer and selected students, and reputationally selected parents and members of the community. The selection procedures utilized by the research team have been used by numerous other ethnographic researchers such as Hunter (1953); Dahl (1961); Becker, Geer, Hughes, and Strauss (1961); Wolcott (1973); and by researchers from the University of Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Individualized Schooling, including Daresh (1978), Neiner (1978), and Watkins (1978). All building administrators were included in the interview sample because the focus of the study was on administrative organization, processes, and behavior.

The revised interview schedule was designed to disprove the tentative findings of the research team. Particular phenomena had emerged after the first week on site, and by suspending belief in such phenomena and asking questions designed to determine negative instances, the research team hoped to revise, alter, and reject those tentative findings initially identified (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Bruyn, 1970).

The Field-Related Propositions

By looking for the negative instance, the research team strengthened the reliability of the research propositions. The research propositions became more data related and data specific

(Becker, Geer, Hughes, & Strauss, 1961; Cusick, 1973; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Relationships among phenomena emerged, and the meaning attached to particular phenomena by the members of the social system became clear (Bruyn, 1970; Wehlage, 1978).

At the end of the second week and a half, the research team withdrew from the research site and examined the findings. The initial categories, properties, and hypotheses were analyzed and compared with findings generated as a result of the revised interview schedule (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Those initial categories, properties, and hypotheses were revised, altered, or discarded as a result of discoveries made during the second round of interviewing, observations, and document analysis (Becker, Geer, Hughes, & Strauss, 1961; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Iannaccone, 1975).

A set of field-related propositions emerged from the above analysis. These propositions attempted to describe the world of the school as seen by those participating in it (Wehlage, 1978). These field propositions identified, clarified, and restated problems as identified by the data from the school (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Iannaccone, 1975).

The field-related propositions reflected what was perceived to exist in terms of administrative organization, processes, and behaviors at the school. Fifteen propositions emerged. They dealt with administrative change; leadership style and behavior; budgetary processes; decision-making structure and processes; staff development processes; curriculum history, structure, and procedures for change; the advisor system; school climate; internal communication processes; home-school-community relations; school size; and school design.

The field-related propositions were presented to various respondents in order to determine which propositions stood the test of the perceptions of those in the system. Nine of the initial interviewees were asked to comment on the field-related propositions. Before sharing these field-related propositions, the research team requested that these interviewees maintain confidentiality with the research team. The purpose for this request was to limit system pollution of the propositions and determine individual responses to the propositions.

Individuals were chosen to share in reviewing the field-related propositions based on their positions within the school organization and their attitudes toward the organization as determined by the research team (Dahl, 1961; Wolcott, 1973). Individuals perceived to be highly supportive of the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors; individuals perceived to be reflective and sometimes critical of the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors; and individuals perceived to be highly critical of the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors were presented with the field-related propositions. Again, the research team was searching for negative instances, and only those propositions which stood the test of the overwhelming majority of the above groups were taken to be accurate perceptions about the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors at the school (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Bruyn, 1970).

Observation Procedures

Daily observations of the school and related activities were made by the research team in order to determine the impact of the administration on the school and its activities. Participant observation techniques as defined by Vidich (1969) and Cusick (1973) were used. The research team spent several days shadowing the administrators of the school. A written record was kept of every activity performed by the administrator. The time, the surroundings, the verbal commentary, and the nonverbal actions of the administrator were all noted. No attempt to predetermine categories was made by the researchers.

All administrative meetings were attended by one or more of the researchers. These included principal and administrative team meetings, principal meetings with district administrators, advisory council meetings, principal meetings with selected staff, and district secondary principals meetings. Additionally, meetings of the board of education, faculty, and student government association were attended by members of the research team. Careful records of all verbal comments and notations of nonverbal reactions were made concerning each of these meetings.

Daily observations of school activities were also made by the researchers. Representative classes were visited in every subject department. Schoolwide assemblies, evening activities, and sporting events were attended. The research team ate lunch in the faculty cafeteria and observed and recorded various conversations. Daily visits to key places within the school, such as the instructional materials center, the teacher planning area, the guidance office area, and other heavily used facilities were made and observations were noted.

Analysis of Documents

Pertinent documents that were available were collected at the school and the district office. Included were minutes and agendas of meetings, program descriptions, daily announcements, school newspapers, regional accrediting association self-study reports, regional accrediting association visitation team reports, pamphlets and articles written about the school and its program by the principal and others, self-study reports, city newspapers, and other pertinent information. The documents that were collected and analyzed provided the research team with an historical perspective and often covered aspects of the school's life not known to all participants nor observed by the research team (McCall & Simmons, 1969).

An initial analysis of the documents was done in the field. A more detailed analysis was completed after the research team left the research site. The various documents were revealing in several ways. Discrepancies between written documents and actual practice were noted and provided the basis for determining parts of the revised interview schedule and the field-related propositions. As noted, an historical perspective was gained by analyzing the various documents. Insights concerning what information was distributed to whom and how was gained through reviewing these documents. Communication channels to the staff, students, and community were identified and then checked through formal questions to various participants. Additional analysis of the documents after leaving the research site yielded further evidence to support many of the commentaries of the interviewees.

Data Gathering Procedure

The research team decided to interview all building-level administrators because of the administrative focus of the study. Additionally, five district-level administrators were interviewed, including the superintendent, two assistant superintendents, the director of high schools, and the director of research.

Staff members initially interviewed were chosen based on their reputation for holding particular points of view. All departmental chairpersons were interviewed because of their quasi-administrative roles. Guidance counselors responsible for administering the teacher advisor program were also among the initial interviewees. Eventually, due to the small size of the staff, all teachers, including part-time staff, were interviewed by a member of the research team.

Parents and students were chosen to be interviewed initially as a result of the positions they held. Efforts were made to interview elected student leaders, parents who were board members, and parents who served on various committees connected with the school. Later, parents and students who had been referred to the research team because of their knowledge or points of view were also interviewed. All possible attempts were made to interview parents and students who were active in the school community and who held both positive and negative attitudes about the school and its programs.

Observations were conducted throughout the school, but shadow observations were done of administrators only. Again, because of the emphasis of the study, the shadow observations were designed to gather information about administrators and the actions they took as a part of the organization, as well as their personal behavior. Both the principal and vice principal were shadowed by two members of the research team at different times. Additionally, the administrative assistant was shadowed by a member of the research team.

During observations, the research team attempted to record any verbal commentary, specific actions by the administrators and others, nonverbal behavior of administrators, and behaviors of others. Later, the observations were examined, compared, and contrasted with information gathered from the interviewing process.

At the end of the first week on site, the research team had interviewed 25 people, observed within the school daily, shadowed the principal and vice principal, and gathered and read weekly and daily school documents and other historical documents about the school. The initial interview schedule was used for the first 25 interviews.

Fortified with the above data, the research team withdrew from the school and analyzed the data to discover categories, properties, and hypotheses related directly to the general problems of East High School regarding their administrative organization, processes, and behaviors (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Tentative hypotheses emerged and these became the basis for a revised interview schedule to be used during the next stage of the research. The revised interview schedule was school specific and used the language of the actual school to ascertain information. The questions for the new revised interview schedule were created around tentative findings and were asked specifically to acquire replies which would confirm or deny initial hypotheses about the school.

The initial hypotheses were as bias free as possible given the limitations of any ethnographic study. The use of the three-member research team with constant feedback and shared discussion allowed the data-related statements to be much more objective than a single researcher might have achieved. Additionally, tentative hypotheses emerged directly from the data (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975) and reflected the perceived reality of those who actually lived within the school social system (Cusick, 1973: Wehlage, 1978).

Throughout the next week and a half, the revised interview schedule was used. Further observations were done and documents gathered. As this new evidence was gathered, it was compared with the tentative hypotheses. This resulted in the revision of some tentative hypotheses and the rejection of others (Becker, Geer, Hughes, & Strauss, 1961; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The initial perceptions of the research team were validated through examining the newly gathered evidence and through living in the system (Cusick, 1973).

Based on the work of the first two and a half weeks, the research team developed a clearer understanding of the meaning of the phenomena observed (Bruyn, 1970). The tentative hypotheses were revised, limited, rejected, and rewritten into field-related propositions (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The field-related propositions were systematically worked out in relationship to the field data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The three-member research team, with their various personal analyses, with their various viewpoints from the respondents they contacted, and with their own personal experiences, became the actual instrument for validating the field-related propositions (Cusick, 1973).

To validate further the propositions, they were introduced into the system at East High School. No new persons were interviewed or asked to comment about these propositions. Individuals who had initially been interviewed were asked to comment about the propositions and confirm or deny their validity. Those individuals were asked to agree not to discuss these propositions with any other members of the school community. They were advised that these field-related propositions were still tentative and that if they disagreed with propositions, they were to clearly state those objections.

Individuals responding to the field-related propositions were chosen because of their personal opinions and attitudes about the administrative organization, processes, and behavior. The research team was seeking negative instances (Becker, Geer, Hughes, & Strauss, 1961) whereby particular people could illustrate that things were not the way the field-related propositions said they were. Individuals were chosen in equal numbers from three groups: those who adamantly supported the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors; those who reflected and disagreed with some aspects of the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors; and those who adamantly opposed the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors. Propositions that were supported by all three groups were retained as stated; propositions that were opposed by all three groups were rejected; and propositions that were partially supported were revised according to the necessity for further analysis.

Analysis of the Data

Numerous commentators have noted that in an ethnographic study data gathering and analysis take place simultaneously (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lutz & Iannaccone, 1969). The research followed a 7-step process as outlined by Bruyn (1970) whereby particular data were obtained, the essence of the data was identified, relationships were noted, modes of how the data appeared were noted, reactions to the data by those involved were noted, belief in the existence of the data was suspended in order not to pollute the study, and the meaning of the data were interpreted.

The analysis of the data followed a 4-step process described by Glaser and Strauss (1967) as the constant comparative method. The constant comparative method generated and suggested many categories, properties, and hypotheses about general problems related to the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors at East High School. By developing the above mentioned categories, properties, and hypotheses, incidents applicable to each category were compared with the category; categories and their properties were integrated into tentative hypotheses; and the tentative hypotheses were refined, limited and restated as field-related propositions. Finally, grounded propositions were written as grounded theory.

A wholistic view of the impact of the administrative staff on a model comprehensive high school emerged as grounded, data-based propositions about administrative organization, processes, and behaviors. According to the precepts of ethnographic studies (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975; Glaser & Strauss, 1967), these grounded propositions emerged as grounded theory which confirmed much of existing formal theory concerning administrative organization, processes, and behaviors, and identified the need for more emphasis on and refinement of certain parts of existing formal theory.

The grounded theoretical statements were further analyzed by comparing the grounded propositions to existing formal theory. What emerged was the need to compare the grounded theory to organizational theory with emphasis on Hage's axiomatic theory of complex organizations; social systems theory with emphasis on the congruence of role expectations and need-dispositions and the resulting social behavior; organizational climate with emphasis on school design, size, and administrative behavior; leadership theory with emphasis on leadership styles and stages; decision theory with emphasis on participative decision making and the decisional process; change theory with emphasis on appropriate leadership for the stages of change and the implementation phases of the change process; motivation theory with emphasis on motivators and hygiene factors; and administrative processes with emphasis on Chase's taxonomy of processes as facilitating factors in the school.

Limitations of the Study

All ethnographic field studies are limited by the ability of the researcher collecting the data. As the key instrument of the study, the researcher had to work constantly to ensure objectivity, validity, and reliability. The biases of the researchers had to be taken into account. By using a three-member research team, the researchers continually worked to expose one another's motives and prejudices and worked to neutralize them.

Time was a limitation of the study. First, by being on site only three weeks, only a particular dynamic slice of reality within the life of the organization was examined. Second, not every member of the school community was interviewed and observed. To counter these limitations, the research team asked respondents to view the interview questions over a period of time and as a dynamic whole rather than individually. Also, the collection of historical documents and the analysis of these documents was intended to counter this limitation.

The study was limited in terms of its generalizability because of the nature of ethnographic studies. Only one research site was used for the study and the generalizations are based on the data which existed at that one site. Cronbach (1975) noted that all generalizations are limited and decay through time and that the primary goal of social science research is an interpretation in the context of a specific situation and not mere generalization.

In sum, the study does not describe every action. Conditions are specified under which it was culturally appropriate to anticipate certain actions by an individual in a role. Wolcott (1975) noted that an ethnographic study is a theory of cultural behavior in a particular society and is adequate to the extent that the statements of the researcher could be used as instructions for appropriately anticipating the scenes of the society.

CHAPTER III

PRESENTATION OF DATA

This chapter contains the data gathered at East High School dealing with administrative organization, processes, and behavior. The field data were summarized on site into 15 tentative propositions for review by selected staff of the school. Based on the East staff reactions and further data analysis, those propositions were revised and refined into nine generalizable statements about administrative impact on schools. What follows are those final propositions placed into the three research categories--organization, processes, and behavior. Each proposition is followed by an explanation and the relevant data from East High School. Some data unavoidably overlap into all propositions, especially the data regarding administrative behavior which shapes the school's organization and processes.

Administrative Organization

The administrative organization of the school is comprised of the formal arrangements for supervising the operation of the school. The administrative organization at East High School is described in three propositions. The propositions focus on the impact of the school's design and size, district centralization, and organization for instruction.

Proposition One: School Design and Size

A school's design and size substantially influences both its program and its climate.

East High School's two-level, round building with large, open classroom pods has been both credited and blamed for much of what occurs daily in the school. Likewise, the school's enrollment impacts on the school. East High School, with an enrollment of approximately 900 students, had supporters and opponents of its size, but all agreed that the size made a significant difference in the school's program and climate.

Many staff members believed that the building design and size had been somewhat responsible for the "warm, friendly, and open atmosphere of East--full of caring, concerned, and interested people." Students agreed, "Kids know most other kids at East because the school is small and round so you keep running into everyone." This is one reason the atmosphere was friendly with very little racial tension. The building seemed modern and gave a feeling of closeness among students, staff, and administrators. Teachers explained that the openness was conducive to their continuous progress curriculum, which gave the entire school a "free-flowing" feeling.

Specifically, the large teacher planning area, containing all staff desks, enabled teachers to see one another often and work together, thus establishing excellent intrastaff communication.

The planning area created a sense of "closeness" and allowed for free and open communication among teachers. This proximity was a key factor in maintaining faculty interaction. An experienced teacher explained the advantages of the planning area.

> We can see each other right away and can get feedback right away. When I need to talk to someone, I can just go over and see them. I don't have to chase all over the building looking for them.

East teachers talked with each other quite frequently, shared ideas, and understood subject areas outside their own department. Teachers endorsed the planning area concept because it allowed contact with "what other people are doing" and helped teachers to gain new ideas about how they might improve their teaching. Some staff members referred to it as the school's "think tank," encouraging cross-fertilization of ideas between departments and among members of the same department. As teachers commented,

> The faculty planning area means that you can't isolate yourself from the rest of the staff because you constantly have to see each other. This has helped bring around teachers who didn't feel comfortable in the school. You must have a sense of community to run a successful continuous progress school.

The sense of community among the East staff owes much of its origin and maintenance to this planning area. There was, however, some inconvenience to teachers--especially those who were accustomed to having their own desks in their own classrooms or department areas. Some teachers felt that the planning area was too "chaotic and noisy" and too "accessible to intruding students" looking for teachers. Most agreed that the common planning area of the building design impacted heavily on the school's program and climate.

Another significant aspect of the school's design was that of open classroom space. The opinions of students and teachers were divided on the desirability of open space, but everyone agreed that it affected the school's program and climate. Some areas, such as music, art, industrial arts, and physical education, were self-contained, but most of the school was open and accessible to the entire school community.

Programmatically, teachers have had to adjust and "learn to work with the building," which was designed for team teaching and individualization. It was surprising to newer staff to discover, "No one really wants to team teach in this building, and that's what it was designed for." Yet, teachers were constantly in view and earshot of each other. This "goldfish bowl" arrangement has enhanced interpersonal relationships of the staff because, as they said, "We always see each other and don't become territorial because the building design won't let us." In addition, teachers reported that the open space caused staff "accountability," "team effort," and "mutual support." Above all, students and teachers agreed that teachers had to prepare for classes better because of the openness. A teacher observed,

> Teachers always have others watching them and looking over their shoulder to see what they're doing. Faults are always visible. As a result, teachers must always

> work hard and can't get away with just winging it like in closed classrooms.

The school's atmosphere--"congenial, relaxed, supportive, familiar"--emanated in part from the openness. Among the faculty there was an "air of intimacy, mutual support, and concern" as teachers witnessed and saw everything. The openness encouraged intimacy, and the staff had a sense of self-assurance bred by the open space.

Working with students in open space was different than in traditional classrooms. The open space allowed teachers to work with a large group of students divided into smaller groups and independent study situations rather than "facing thirty students in neat rows." While open space can make materials more accessible, everyone pointed out that it also meant more noise--"something you just have to get used to." Most important of all, the open building design encouraged teachers and students to work closely together. As one respondent noted,

> Because the building has less walls, we have more personal contact between adults and kids. If I want to find someone, I can just go for a walk around the school and find the kid. That's possible because there isn't the establishment of territoriality here as there is in other schools.

Although everyone agreed that the building design affected the program at East, not everyone believed that it had a beneficial effect. Some teachers noted, "Students and teachers have trouble dealing with the openness because we aren't geared for having so much openness with so many stimuli." The noise level was disturbing to some, especially when one could hear other teachers and classes all the time. Showing a movie, conducting group oral drills, and delivering a lecture are examples of problems teachers faced when attempting to transfer closed classroom methods to open schools. One teacher admitted, "Many of us still don't have a good handle on how to deal with open space." As a result, they saw the building as an impediment to learning.

Parents seemed mostly concerned about student behavior in open space. A parent voiced the opinion of many, "Open space needs terrific dedication by teachers in order to make it work, and without dedication student discipline becomes a problem." Parents thought it was too easy for students to "walk out of class, group, socialize, and waste time" because of the openness. No one seemed quite sure of what openness really meant in terms of permissiveness, so teachers found themselves engaged in a constant "tug-of-war over where to draw the line and not allow something." Although some staff felt strongly that students exploited the openness and were immature and irresponsible, the staff lacked agreement and consistent action with regard to open space philosophy and implementation.

The building design was variously described by its critics as "a joke," "cramped," and "a living testimony of the ancient view of the circle as the universal symbol of chaos." But the greatest criticism was directed at the inflexibility of the structure and the impact this had on the school's program. A veteran teacher explained the building paradox.

> The architecture dictates the open-space concept for 100 percent self-paced continuous progress classes, but many courses are now group-paced, so the open space creates problems. The facility just doesn't suit the teaching now occurring.

The most common solution suggested by the staff for the open-space problem was the construction of self-contained classrooms "so teachers have the option of using them or remaining in open space." Teachers were quick to point out that this was not inconsistent with the school philosophy because "being in a closed classroom doesn't have to mean a closed, traditional teaching style and learning environment." The math department, for one, had walls built one summer because, as a math teacher explained, "We went mostly to group-paced, traditional math classes because we couldn't teach the other way."

Students and teachers agreed that the school's program was suffering from the lack of an enclosed quiet place to study for both students and staff. Located in the middle of the school, the media center had become "the student lounge." People who desired a quiet room in which to work could not find one at East High School. Students complained that this seriously affected the independent study program because "in the midst of this noisy, open-space atmosphere there isn't any quiet study area for us to work alone like we're supposed to be able to in a continuous progress school." Individualization for students was interpreted by East High School to mean self-pacing for everyone in open-space pods and not a variety of alternative learning environments. Measures are now being taken at East to adjust to that original concept, as explained by a veteran staff member.

> Some people believe that a strong staff can teach anything anywhere, and walls, space, and design have little to do with the program offered. But space is everything. It determines what we can do. The basic East program is based on the design of this building, and the advancement lab is based on the weaknesses of our facility. We must continue to recognize our weaknesses and correct for them.

Somewhat related to the design of the building are the questions of maintenance and security as they affect the program and climate. Teachers were reluctant to make displays and have equipment and materials readily available because of the lack of security. A teacher explained the problem, "Without walls and doors that lock, lots of things are stolen." Students had easy access to all areas of the school, and the teachers' planning area had to double as a storage room for security purposes. Maintenance by the custodial staff was also the source of a multitude of problems for the school program. Custodial tasks were divided between school and district personnel, with the expected result that many duties fell in a "no-man's-land." For example, broken furniture and equipment remained unfixed and thereby hampered classroom instructional efforts. Another staff complaint regarded the adverse effects on the learning environment caused by the malfunctioning central heating and cooling system.

Just as the building design significantly affects the school's program and climate, so does the school size. East High School has fluctuated in enrollment from the 800s to the 1,100s with its 1979-80 student population at approximately 900. There was universal agreement that the number of students affected the program and climate, and that the optimal number was just under 1,000 students. The school was "overpopulated and crowded" when its enrollment was in the 1,100s, and personalization decreased as class size increased. The staff did not like the fact that everyone was "a bit touchy because too many of us were stuffed into a small building." Some staff also felt that the school's program began to break down because it could not operate effectively with more than 1,000 students. "The greater the complexity of the school, the greater the responsibility of the individual, so a larger student body has more problems proportionately." Many students and staff were convinced that the school works because of its size and could not work as well in a larger school.

There was general concern that the diverse curriculum offerings should not decrease because of fewer students. East High School teachers carried an extra number of class preparations, and combined classes, to ensure that more courses could be offered.

> Our small size does limit the number of courses we can offer effectively. I still like the size, though, because I feel I know most of the kids and faculty.

> Sometimes, now, we do have to combine classes, but we still offer the course. We can do that only because our strong, dedicated staff works hard to provide elective options.

Yet, simple logistics dictated that some courses be eliminated because board policy guidelines meant that sometimes there were not "enough students to warrant a teacher." The school board's commitment to quality education within small schools was facing the problem of maintaining complete programs in all schools despite low course enrollments. The staff was very concerned over the fiscal mood of the district. "The first classes to go seem to be the high level courses with only a few bright students in them." Thus, in the future the school size may have an even greater impact on the school's program.

Parents were very supportive of the "neighborhood high school" approach the district was following. While some were concerned about the impact on the course offerings, they also pointed to the positive effects of size on the school climate.

> The smallness helps East create a sense of loyalty to the school. My two younger children feel a tremendous sense of dedication to East High School. The students and staff know one another well and this promotes a real community spirit not often found in larger schools.

The school's design and size substantially influences both its program and climate. A building design influences the entire curriculum philosophy of the school and affects the teaching styles and methods utilized. The climate of a school is somewhat dependent on the design of the building, emphasizing the importance of an architecturally sound learning environment. In addition to the design of a school, the enrollment affects the type of program offered and the atmosphere of the school. Together, the building design and climate are powerful determinants of much of what occurs within an educational institution.

Proposition Two: District Centralization

A large and bureaucratic school district central office can limit a building administration's control over its school and the communication and cooperation between schools.

A local school district which centralizes authority, even under the noble aim of equality for all schools in the district, runs the risk of creating an obstacle to efficiency and effectiveness by establishing a cumbersome bureaucracy. Careful consideration of this pitfall is necessary to structure a district in which each school not only has the latitude it needs to operate best for its students, but also has beneficial contacts and relations with other schools. It is as essential to avoid paralyzing the principal by overregulation as it is to encourage reckless abandon by underregulation. The most profitable situation for everyone concerned is a fine line somewhere between these extremes.

East High School, as one of nine high schools in a district of 48 schools, has a staff which feels overregulated by the district office in some respects, but accepts the situation as an unalterable fact of life. The board of education and central office were generally viewed by the staff as "supportive in some ways, but lacking any understanding of the unique East program, which causes all the friction." Compared to nearby districts, East's central office was considered by some to be "responsive" and "accessible" because it was possible to meet personally with district personnel to discuss concerns. The visibility and accessibility of district personnel played a key role in how subordinates felt about them.

On the other hand, district personnel viewed their office as relatively small and unobtrusive. The central administration believed, "There is very little interference with our schools, and if anything can be said, it's that we don't interfere enough." District administrators were concerned that schools had been given too much responsibility to do their own thing, so, consequently, the district had been increasing its supervision and demands on schools. The question of how much control the central office has versus how much autonomy an individual school should have was a major issue, as one district administrator explained:

> The board of education is in a real quandary. They want to have their cake and eat it, too. They want total control over schools to ensure accountability and equality. Yet, they want to allow for school individuality. The board is currently struggling as to which direction it will go, and is already leaning toward loosening up. For example, a new policy now allows principals to transfer funds from one account to another with the written approval of the Director of High Schools and the Assistant Superintendent for School Administration and Curriculum. Previously, principals couldn't transfer funds at all.

If the board of education was not sure of its philosophy, then it was hardly surprising that the central office bureaucracy was not entirely certain of its role, either. Instead of offering leadership to the district, some central office personnel acted as board functionaries merely carrying out the board's decisions. This bureaucratic attitude was reflected by the lack of individual consideration given to schools within the district, which the district administrators thought was justified.

> There is a need to give principals direction so the district has a consistent district direction with handbooks, policies, guidelines, etc. All schools must be treated equally, and the board puts the microscope on the central office to look at its operations to make sure it's doing that job.

Central office rules and regulations routinely hampered the school's efforts. The goal of treating everyone the same denied important differences, leaving a principal without many discretionary moves that involved money or policy. A veteran teacher pointed out the irony of the situation:

> It is true when the district says they aren't monitoring East. That's because we're constantly bumping heads anyway over district policies set for traditional schools, so they always know what we're doing or trying to do without any extra effort.

For example, East High School is situated between two nearby shopping malls. The students requested an open lunch period because of the accessibility to the mall restaurants. The board's answer relied on centralized rules, as one respondent noted, "The board refuses to allow East to have an open lunch because they say if they do it for one school they will have to do it for all the schools." Blanket rules made in disregard of the particular situation have also made athletic eligibility at East a problem since students in a continuous progress curriculum may not have the same quarterly grades and cutoffs as traditional schools. Decisions such as these, when made by a large, central office bureaucracy, can tie the hands of the principal.

The school's budget was mostly controlled by the central office and its curriculum supervisors. Funds were specifically earmarked for subject departments and could not be altered. Because monies to subject departments were distributed by the district curriculum supervisors, and not the principal, it was extremely difficult for the administration to set school priorities. A teacher described how even departments had difficulty controlling their own priorities, "The district subject supervisors control the departmental money and may decide to spend it on wall maps they want rather than a new videotape recorder we want and need for our program at East." Another complaint often heard among the staff was that the district encouraged acceleration for gifted students, and then "left them to the high schools without providing extra help or funding for special programs." The budgetary process bypassed the principal and sharply limited what he could do in the school.

The curriculum was also determined by the district office and board, with little input from the principal. An East teacher wanted to make a curricular change in an existing course to make a better program for the East students. Although the principal and subject supervisor both approved, the board would not approve the change because it would make the East program "different." The inflexibility of the central office was a constant source of frustration to those who understood the needs of the students. Textbook selection, for example, was done at the district level. This created frustration on the classroom level, as one experienced teacher explained, "The text for one of my courses is very poor for my students, so I have to create the materials myself since we can't get a more appropriate text." The principal was powerless to help because he did not control the budget or any discretionary funds. In many curricular areas the state proficiency tests, and the tougher district tests, were not only determining what was taught, but also forced the staff to spend time "testing and completing paperwork instead of doing more pertinent and creative things." Basically, most staff at East felt overregulated and stifled in at least one area. One veteran teacher summed up the general staff feeling:

> The district dictates what to teach, how to teach it, and what results are expected, so East has its hands tied most of the time, which is changing our school daily from the original philosophy.

The school principal also had little power in the area of staffing. The district determined all administrative, teacher, aide, clerical, custodial, and food service positions, and then let the principal have some input on hiring. This procedure did not allow the principal to determine where the most help was needed so he could determine positions accordingly. District quotas were used even though school and district personnel realized, "Open space requires more teachers in some areas for more student-teacher contact." Special programs seemed particularly vulnerable to this type of centralized staffing, as one frustrated teacher described:

> Small class sizes for special programs don't meet the quotas. That means we lose a teacher. There needs to be an attempt to throw away the quota and deal with the needs of students instead. Our school's needs should be understood from our school's perspective, not a district handbook.

Another teacher echoed the common sentiment, "They want us to do different things as a model school, but then don't staff us to do it." The recent board decision to eliminate aide positions through attrition worried teachers and administrators that the school's program would be in jeopardy. The staffing question prompted an experienced teacher to comment, "Sometimes it makes you wonder why they bother appointing principals when in so many areas the principal is just a powerless figurehead in this district."

The custodial and maintenance services were yet another example of central control over the school. Although some custodial staff were permanently assigned to the school, the maintenance staff for many tasks was employed and dispatched by the central office. Stacks of broken chairs, desks, and equipment were common at East, waiting for the central office maintenance crews because school custodians were not responsible for putting a new screw into a broken chair. An example was given by a teacher of how the central maintenance service affected the school.

> We waited for seven years to have simple wooden doors put on the open shelves in the classroom pods so we could lock materials, and they broke immediately because of poor quality. We've been waiting for a year now to have them fixed.

Indeed, inadequate cabinet hardware has left classroom cabinet doors hanging open on one hinge or just fallen to the floor. The principal did not have the funds or power to purchase new hardware and have the school's custodial staff use a screwdriver to fix the doors. For that matter, an inexpensive outside door closer had been broken for over a year, allowing the door to swing open all year, letting the winter's outside air stream into the school at the same time the district had cut all budgets due to higher energy costs. It took five telephone calls by the principal to the district office to have some dangerous broken wooden bleachers in the gymnasium replaced on the afternoon of the first basketball game after more than six months of waiting for a crew to arrive from the central office.

Not only was the principal limited as to what he could do in his own school, but increasing centralization by the district office limited interschool communication and cooperation. With control vested in the district office, principals spent their time communicating frequently to the central office and seldom to another principal because they would both then be required to receive approval from the district for any arrangements made. The Director of High Schools has attempted to build a transhierarchical bridge among high school principals by holding monthly meetings with the entire group. However, these meetings only reinforced the fact that dialogue existed only between each principal and the central office and not between principals. Even attempts at developing informal social occasions for this group have failed. Naturally, there was no perceived need to talk or work with other principals when the power resided at the central office. In addition, faced with the district's centralization, the principals perceived additional communication and cooperation with others as even further erosion of what little autonomy they still managed to maintain. The entire situation created a decrease in the amount of communication and cooperation a principal had with other principals.

A large and bureaucratic school district central office can limit a building administration's control over its school. The amount of centralized control is always a matter of perception, but restrictions on a principal's control of programmatic rules and regulations, budgetary processes, curricular decisions, staffing needs, and maintenance services can effectively tie a principal's hands and result in inefficiency and frustration. Likewise, overregulation and centralization can break down the interschool communication networks and cooperation efforts by destroying the school's capacity and need to engage in such processes. To be an effective leader, a principal must be given the power and the incentive to make those decisions which impact solely on his or her school.

Proposition Three: Organization for Instruction

Schools that individualize education should have a philosophically cohesive and comprehensive educational plan that provides alternative learning modes and programs for students and teachers based on their own individual needs and preferences.

While the specifics of individualized programs differ, the common philosophic goal of providing learning alternatives to meet the needs of each student requires careful planning and administration. Recognizing the wide diversity of student needs means building a program that offers a wide variety of learning modes and materials to meet those needs. Just as a traditional curriculum does not allow for individual differences, a single curriculum and instructional mode for individualization does not provide the alternatives necessary for every student to reach his or her potential. Likewise, teachers and staff have individual needs and preferences which must be taken into account if a school is to serve its students in the best way possible with its available resources. It is the responsibility of the administration to organize an instructional program that is manageable, consistent with the school's philosophy, and operable with available resources.

East High School is committed to a philosophy of continuous progress "where a student can achieve credit without tying it to a time limitation." Originally, the entire student body was placed in self-paced learning programs to fulfill the goal of continuous progress, but over the years teachers have gradually shifted more and more courses to group-paced instruction similar to traditional classrooms. Although the district administration saw East's greatest strength to be "its ability to change to meet student and community needs that change," the trend toward a traditional instructional program has been "unplanned drift." One veteran teacher explained, "No one has ever presented the idea of a common curriculum approach and philosophy for some school cohesion, including a comprehensive educational plan with alternative learning options." The "willy-nilly growth" that resulted from this lack of administrative planning had changed the school from its original central philosophic goal. The staff agreed that because "the curriculum philosophy differs with each department," there was a lot of misunderstanding. As one teacher pointed out, "Many departments are no longer what they say they are." The following statements from three different departments at East illustrate the lack of cohesion and administrative direction:

> The curriculum is built around the idea of self-pacing. Students can move at their own pace. They can start a course and finish it later if they aren't ready to finish with everyone else.
>
> All of the departments have continuous progress, but some courses are group-paced. A student cannot begin a group-paced course at any point in time like a self-paced course. We now have group-paced courses in this department.
>
> We are group-paced. That means we are not into continuous progress. Our department does not do any continuous progress except to allow students to retake tests.

It is not surprising, with the above interdepartmental conflicts, that no one really is sure of exactly what is going on at East anymore. District administrators believed that anywhere from 60 percent of East was self-paced to almost 100 percent. Their concern, "East needs more structure and group-paced alternatives," was contrasted with the one district administrator who realized that only 25 percent of East was "strictly continuous progress based on self-pacing" because the school was "slowly moving in the direction of group-pacing." The central administration was concerned that East should "try to match students and teachers with the alternative learning and teaching methods that fits them best by setting up formal alternatives for kids and staff." Unwittingly, this position was taken as a stand for more structure at East when it was the alternatives that were limited by too much structure. By not monitoring and directing the school's educational program, the school's past administrations had let the school drift to the point that the staff was not sure of the school's present status.

Even though the changes at East have not been planned or systematic, many believed that the school's program offered something appropriate for everyone. The district administration described East's curriculum as "very extensive and deep." The school administration also felt that East was providing for all students' needs, as expressed by the principal, Mr. Miller.

> East is great because its program offers something for everyone. A model school usually connotes acceleration and gifted programs, but not at East where special education, the advancement lab, and other programs ensure levels of courses for all students. Self-pacing and individualization make it possible for success to be within reach of all students.

Teachers agreed that East had a wide diversity of courses available for all levels of students, "which is different than most schools where only top students have options available." There was no question but that East "offers more different courses than any other high school in the district," but for some that was not enough. As one staff member explained,

> We do a good job of offering alternative learning styles in comparison to what surrounds us, but in comparison to what we could do and what we are about, we are just mediocre.

Most of the staff's decision to move away from self-paced, individualized instruction was centered around two issues--the ability of students and the adaptability of the courses. There was consensus among the staff, "There are some areas where continuous progress does not work." Both the mathematics and foreign language departments had abandoned self-pacing because they were convinced "in some subjects you need group-pacing." All departments, except English, were headed in the same direction, which prompted one teacher to observe, "Using your subject as an excuse for group-pacing won't work much longer because we'll all be group-paced." The principal also agreed that some subjects required group pacing, including his own field of foreign language.

As for the ability of students being used as a rationale for switching to group pacing, East teachers were very divided on the issue. Some were confident that self-pacing had failed because of teachers' inability, not the students'.

> Continuous progress works for the vast majority of kids if advisors and teachers would motivate and monitor kids properly. Only a few kids need a traditional program, and some won't learn much in any system.

Many advisors were not monitoring students to make them responsible, and many teachers were not consistent in their attempts to keep students on task in the classroom, thus allowing ample opportunity for "goofing off" and "taking way too much time on their assignments." Some teachers agreed that continuous progress did work for all students "when defined as students picking up where they left off rather than starting all over again." This view relied on self-pacing within three-week units which the entire class began and finished together; a failed unit meant redoing only that unit and not the whole semester.

But many staff would not even compromise by using three-week units and remained convinced that at least "30 percent of our students cannot cope with open space and self-pacing" with some putting the figure at "a majority of our students." Many teachers thought the "silent majority" were the "middle-level students who have been forgotten at East" because self-pacing did not work for them. One teacher echoed the sentiments of many:

> The idea of self-pacing and continuous progress is great for the highly motivated and for the slow learner, but for the large majority of students who get B's and C's, it isn't good for them. They need deadlines and structure. When they have to make too many decisions, then the work doesn't get done, or is done so quickly at the last minute that the quality suffers.

Other teachers believed that some students needed "the security of a group," were not capable "of handling much freedom," or were "not mature enough or willing to accept the responsibility to do the work on their own." The school was also accused of not maintaining "tight enough screening of self-paced students" and "turning kids loose too easily." The staff also maintained that the students preferred group-pacing because "it takes the responsibility off of them" and they missed "the discussion and interaction with the teacher." Teachers claimed they were merely doing what students really wanted,

> The students demand traditionalism. They want all five days in a block. They are more comfortable, secure, and sheltered in a group-paced class. They aren't threatened and can see whether they are ahead or behind. This is just part of our culture.

Students and parents were as divided on this issue as teachers. Parents generally believed that children were different and their own self-motivation was the largest factor in success in self-paced courses. Although most students could succeed in self-paced classes, parents felt a small group could not handle it, "including my own son." Students who liked self-paced classes appreciate "the chance to work at your own pace and finish early if you can." Conversely, group-paced classes could be "boring because it's more interesting to do the packets on your own." The most common student complaints against self-pacing, and the main reasons for preferring group-paced courses, were "the lack of clear direction about what you're supposed to be doing" and "the failure of teachers to push you to do your work." Many students were confused about what they were doing and were not kept on task by teachers.

It was apparent to everyone at East that there was a lack of administrative planning and foresight in the area of curriculum programming. The haphazard educational program that had resulted from years of drift had polarized the staff. There had been a failure to establish a cohesive, comprehensive educational plan that recognized the necessity of alternatives within the school that met the varying needs and preferences of students and staff. The absence of any search for better teaching and learning methods, opting instead for reliance on the original concepts of self-pacing and group-pacing, stemmed from the actions of past administrators. One district administrator analyzed the weaknesses of East's curricular management:

> There are some kids at East who are falling through the cracks because of continuous progress management problems. A continuous progress school takes more administrative foreseeability by the administration and staff than a traditional school because students need even more monitoring with continuous progress options. With each department "doing its own thing," one hand sometimes doesn't know what the other is doing. An open, self-paced school needs more administrative planning than other schools, not less. Coordination and cooperation are even more crucial because the school will be chaotic without good management.

Since the schedule really determines what can be done at the school, it was a crucial area of administrative responsibility and a topic of much debate at East. The school began with a very flexible schedule to accommodate the idea of continuous progress and self-pacing for all students. As group-paced classes developed, teachers demanded student attendance in class for a full period five days a week. As more and more teachers switched to group-paced classes, students discovered that their schedules were full of lectures almost every hour every day. Field trips, guest speakers, special labs, music groups, interdisciplinary courses, and other special learning activities became nuisances rather than the school norm. Students, at one time able to take as many as 12 courses in a year by taking advantage of flexible scheduling, were limited to six--one each period. Since group-paced courses were offered during specific periods rather than always available as self-paced courses, scheduling conflicts abounded. Teachers complained about being "locked in" because of a rigid schedule.

> The majority of teachers are totally convinced that their students need to sit in class and listen to them five days a week to learn. Therefore, student choral groups, art projects, and guest speakers that need only one or two periods a week become "a pain in the neck" rather than the wonderful enrichment opportunities they were. The whole schedule issue is directly tied to the school's direction and philosophy.

Some teachers complained, "Nothing else can be done at East until the schedule is made more flexible so more interdisciplinary and progressive courses can become part of the curriculum." Other teachers liked East just the way it was. The resolution of this issue remained, as an experienced teacher commented, with the principal, "He must figure out what the philosophy of the school really is and then tie the schedule to it." But, there was more to the dilemma than one realized, as another staff member pointed out.

> East must face the issue of having two programs--self-paced and group-paced courses--at the same time even if having half the classes group-paced means dooming the continuous progress, self-paced courses because of the resulting schedule inflexibility. Students may be able to finish early in the self-courses but then have nowhere else to go because the schedule gets locked in by the group-paced courses. The two cannot co-exist as equals; one or the other must be emphasized.

The issue was discussed at a faculty meeting in the fall but administrative turnover had stymied follow-up action. The staff was anxiously awaiting for Mr. Miller's administration to address the scheduling topic. However, a report from the recently appointed Philosophy Committee was needed before the administration could decide on further action.

An administration can have a great impact in the area of staff personnel because it hires, assigns, and trains the staff according to the needs of the school's programs. Many East teachers pointed to the "influx of new teachers" as the main factor in a shift from the original self-pacing, continuous progress philosophy to the current group-paced, traditional instructional mode. A veteran teacher believed the hiring practices in a school with such high staff turnover were to blame for the current confusion.

> The new staff are used to other systems and are reluctant to try continuous progress. Really, East should only hire teachers who will work with self-pacing. Some came in with negative attitudes and now there must be the option for them to teach our way or their way.

Yet, one newly hired teacher complained that there was no choice because of the lack of a training program at East.

> I would not teach my classes based on an individually-paced program because I do not know how, and no one has offered to help me learn.

One of the reasons that self-paced classes continue was that those who taught self-paced courses felt very good about their jobs. The daily variety and constant challenges made teaching more interesting than teaching the same thing every period to every student, as a teacher explained.

> East's continuous progress format makes teaching much more interesting because I'm dealing with all aspects of a course every day with different students rather than the same lesson all day for all students. And teachers who are stimulated, instead of bored, make better teachers for kids.

The self-pacing concept also freed teachers from "the daily baby-sitting grind," replacing quantity with perceived quality. Staff members had a lot of time for individual students and interstaff contact, as one respondent observed:

> Because a teacher isn't always lecturing in a classroom, that teacher is more available to me and to kids for personal interaction. The curriculum is set up for only one or two days with teachers lecturing, and the rest is self-paced or small group. That flexibility allows great things to happen here that can't happen at other schools.

But not everyone saw teaching self-paced classes as a wonderful experience, either for students or teachers. The newly appointed vice principal expressed this concern about the concept:

> When a teacher says to me that a kid can do the work in the library, I have difficulty with that. I think the teacher is the most important element in the program. The subject becomes interesting because of a teacher.

Not only did the staff receive such contrary signals from the administration as to what teachers should be doing, but some staff felt betrayed by the administration for trying to do the best thing for students. One supporter of continuous progress explained both the reason for having eight preparations every day and the ensuing difficulties:

> I set up all these courses with the administration so more students could benefit, meaning I have several classes going at once in a classroom, but the number of preparations is killing me.

Another veteran teacher explained the dilemma many teachers faced at East High School:

> Quite frankly, I would love to do continuous progress, but it takes too much time. I don't have time to do this in five classes with three different preparations and have any private life. I go home and do school work for a couple of hours every night and on weekends as it is. There is a limit as to what you can ask people to do.

Many teachers contended the staff drifted back to group-paced classes because "teachers often saw it as less work and more convenient." Others found the daily diversity annoying and switched methods because "they just got tired of doing certain parts over and over thirty times for a class instead of just once."

A third major area of administrative responsibility in structuring a school's program is the grading policy. East's no-fail policy, part of the original school philosophy, was under heavy attack from some staff and parents. Some teachers and parents liked the no-fail idea because "students are at school to achieve and not to fail," but other parents were concerned that teachers were too lax as a result of the no-fail policy. Some parents wanted East teachers to be more challenging "so my son won't be able to complete the year's work in the last six weeks of the school again after goofing off all year." Parents desired strong learning discipline for their kids.

> More learning discipline is needed in the classroom with teachers demanding more learning and challenging kids more. Many classes are just too easy, informal, and fun instead of challenging and interesting. School becomes fun for kids when they are successful in demanding situations that challenge and not in situations that only demand fooling around.

Teachers pointed out that the continuous progress philosophy was meant to put more responsibility on the student. This meant that students would seek challenging situations and buckle down to work instead of wasting time. A teacher who supported the no-fail policy noted its intent:

> Our curriculum philosophy is based on a concept of continuous progress which means the absence of failure. It works out to be a big emphasis on self-reliance and realizing your own potential. It is frustrating to kids, but a good kind of frustration--a healthy frustration. This kind of frustration is far better than a kid sitting and getting F's every course.

Other teachers felt the situation was not healthy. "It's too easy for kids to change their schedules." That meant that frustrated kids took the easy way out. As a teacher pointed out, "Whenever things get tough, they change schedules instead of learning to be accountable." The administrative policy that allowed this also determined that the lowest grade for completed work was a "C," with incompleted work graded "I." This no-fail policy had upset teachers, who saw a grade inflation problem "where no one knows what a 'C' is really worth because it's been bastardized at East."

Other teachers were frustrated by the grading policy because they felt powerless without the threat of failure.

> The no-fail policy keeps teachers from having strong enough consequences for students who don't perform as they should. For example, students don't have to be prepared for a test, can cut class on the day of a test, and can even cheat on a test because they know they can just retake the test another time. The no-fail policy means students don't have to be responsible for their actions.

Students, themselves, concurred with this analysis of the East grading policy.

> It's good for us that you can't get below a 'C,' but the temptation is for kids not to bother studying because it's easier just to retake the tests again and again because there's no penalty like extra work to do if you don't pass the test.

There were some teachers who believed that East students were being given a false impression of what adult life was really like. These teachers stressed that all the healthy affective gains that East tried to make were destroyed by the results of the grading policy.

> The A-B-C-I grading policy is bad because grades should reflect effort and accomplishments within a specified time period. There should be definite time limits to continuous progress work because continuous progress means the flexibility to work ahead of the normal pace but not to drag behind it. The current grading policy promotes laziness by students and rewards for kids for nonperformance. D's and F's are needed because the no-fail philosophy is unrealistic in today's world.

> The no-fail policy gives a false picture of society itself. In a society you will meet failures. Students must learn to deal with failure. We don't equip them to do that at East.

Thus, the school's grading policy, which had always been a fundamental part of its philosophy, had been severely criticized by teachers, adjusted within individual classrooms, and openly fought about in faculty meetings. Since a grading policy influences a school's instructional program, the East administration was carefully considering the issue. Although a dual grading system had been proposed--enabling failures for group-paced classes and retaining the no-fail policy for self-paced classes--no decision seemed likely before the report came from the Philosophy Committee.

Schools that provide individualized education should provide alternative learning modes and programs for students and teachers based on their own individual needs and preferences. Administrators are responsible for ensuring that a school's program does not drift by setting a clear and manageable direction for the school community. Recognition of separate, compatible paths within the school's educational plan for students and staff can alleviate a key source of frustration, disillusionment, and unsound educational practice. Other issues that impact heavily on individual options within a school, such as scheduling, staff personnel, and grading policy, all must be dealt with by the administration in such a way as to allow individualization to take place within a sensible, realistic, and cohesive framework.

Administrative Processes

The administrative processes of the school include the formal and informal ways in which the administrator carries out his or her duties. The administrative processes at East High School are described in five propositions. The propositions deal with communication networks and interactive patterns, staff selection and development, student and staff decision-making, home-school-community relations, and special program administration.

Proposition Four: Communication Networks

The communication networks and interactive patterns of a school can be significantly enhanced through an effective teacher advisor program.

Two-way communication and ongoing interaction between students, staff, administrators, and parents are vital in a school. The responsibility for ensuring that the communication channels are in place and functioning is a major administrative task. These channels form a communication network that encourages spontaneous interaction among students, teachers, parents, and the administration. In addition to increasing communication among groups, the administration can facilitate communication within groups so that students relate better with other students, and teachers communicate with other teachers. Furthermore, open communication can help students learn to cope with themselves, school, and society. In sum, there can be ample, meaningful communication and interaction in schools if appropriate action is taken by the administration in building a strong process for dialogue. A teacher advisor program is one approach to this concern.

East High School's teacher advisor program illustrated how the communication networks and interactive patterns of a school can be significantly enhanced. Established by East's first principal, Mr. Johnson, the teacher advisor system enabled the school to monitor each student's academic progress and create a climate for rapport between and among groups in the school community. This administrative communication process was referred to by many East teachers as "the heart of our school" because it addressed so many of the communication problems that plagued other schools.

First of all, the teacher advisor was considered to be "the backbone of the school's program for continuous progress." This meant there was always "some adult to check on a student's work; someone is there to be concerned about the student." As one teacher explained, the advisor system helped students and teachers by opening up communication channels.

> It seems to me that when students are in academic trouble in a traditional high school, it would all fall on the subject teacher; but here the advisor gets daily information and then can work with the kid in getting back on track in an academically nonthreatening way.

Teacher advisors were responsible for their students' progress. Teachers believed the advisor system was better than the guidance counselor's handling everything. "Our groups are small enough that we can easily handle most problems which emerge." Students also liked the idea of one adult keeping track of all students' individual progress and keeping them on target. Students felt the advisors helped them, as one student explained.

> My advisor helps me out a lot. Most students like having advisors because they keep you on top of your grades by checking almost every day. That way we see what's happening.

The academic progress of students was a daily concern. An adult was directly responsible for the student's entire program rather than merely reporting grades quarterly with no one in the school monitoring the student's total education program.

Because the teacher advisor was the link with parents to the school, conferences were held between parents and advisors. Parents preferred this arrangement to many separate conferences with each teacher.

> Parent conferences with the advisor are better than with each subject teacher because the teacher advisor sees the whole program of the student rather than just one side of the student in class.

Furthermore, students did not feel threatened when a parent talked to their advisor because, as one student noted, "Advisors know all your grades instead of just one class, and they tell your parents what you need to do in all areas instead of pushing their own subject." As the contact person for their advisees, each teacher advisor increased communication and interaction through conferences, as one teacher described.

> I can, as an advisor, initiate and be the facilitator of meetings with the parents, student, and teachers to help the child and the others to understand how the program affects the child. It makes the program more efficient.

One of the main reasons for the teacher advisor program's popularity at the school was the sense of belonging it gave to every student because each student received personalized attention from his or her advisor. The advisor gave students attention that they did not get anywhere else in the school. According to staff members, the teacher advisor was "like a parent away from home and a person who feels committed to their students like part of their family." The students felt this attitude and appreciated the relationships it helped foster. A staff member observed,

> These kids know there is someone there to go talk to. They are aware there is someone between them and their parents or a counselor. The advisor is one place where every student feels like they belong.

Teachers pointed to the fact that most students stayed with one teacher advisor for four years which resulted in "a personal friendship kind of thing knowing they can relate to their advisor." An advisor summed up the situation as follows: "Students know they have one adult who will always listen to their problems; it gives them a sense of belonging somewhere."

As a result of the relationship established between students and their advisors, students had their own adult advocates in the school. In addition to working with students who had current problems and providing guidance for courses, advisors also served as "go-between" for discipline. Teachers perceived the philosophy of a teacher academically neutral who acts as a confidant and liaison between parents, teachers, and administrators "is a great idea." The advisors were seen as different from homeroom teachers because advisors were really like "concerned parents" to their advisees. The whole concept of a teacher advisor program provided another alternative person to see besides a teacher or parent when a student had a problem. Conversely, teachers also went to advisors about students in class, and the students realized it. In addition to giving each student a sense of security because someone was always there "to go to bat for the kid," the advisor system developed a sense of student responsibility because the increased communication and interaction always brought praise and criticism back to the advisor and advisee from all corners of the school.

This concept of communication of actions rather than isolated classroom interaction helped students see the totality of school. Teachers frequently stated, "The advisor system is crucial to the school because it sets up channels of communication that do not exist in other high schools and therefore diffuses problems that others are plagued by." Since most teachers were also advisors, they understood the effectiveness of the increased communication and used it to their advantage. As a teacher remarked,

> If I have a problem with a student, there is someone who personally knows that student whom I can go and ask about my problem. The advisor has all the information about the students and can really help out the subject teacher. It's also nice in that you really see some positive things from kids and can go and tell an adult the kid is doing a good job because you know that adult advisor cares about that kid.

This constant communication developed a close school community of caring, concerned people who showed their feelings daily. Teachers claimed, "The advisor system helps me become more involved with the students." Both teachers and students, as well as administrators, were continually improving their human relations skills. Consequently, as Mr. Miller, the principal, pointed out, "Students, including the large minority population, are comfortable at East and feel at home here." This feeling was echoed many times and the general sentiment was, "Although it's not Utopia here, it's much better than most other schools." A student noted, "There's much more closeness at East than at the other high schools in this same city." The teacher advisor program and the emphasis the administration placed on it were seen as the reasons for this community feeling at East.

Another outgrowth of the rapport developed between teacher advisors and their students was the view teachers and students had of each other. Many cited the teacher advisor program as the greatest strength of the school because of the student-teacher relationship fostered as a result of the increased communication and interaction. As an experienced teacher stated,

> The advisor system lets kids know teachers are not just authority figures at the front of a classroom, but are real people to talk to. This helps relations in classes with all students because they see teachers differently. We aren't seen as the gods we once were, and that's made teachers more accessible to students.

Conversely, teachers also saw East students now as more than "just students or trouble makers." Everyone in the school saw others as feeling human beings and treated them as such. Advisors heartily endorsed the teacher advisor system.

> Kids find out we are human like they are. We do hurt and feel. Kids, because of the advisor system, see us as more of a whole person and we in turn see them the same way.

Another spin-off of the teacher advisor program was the increased teacher awareness of other aspects of the school. A teacher commented, "We know about the total operation of the school because of our continual contact with other teachers and other departments through the advisor system." Teachers had to know about the school's course offerings and curriculum, as well as extracurricular activities and athletics, if they were to be of any assistance to their advisees. The increased communication meant continual updating of students' and teachers' knowledge and understanding of the entire school program and procedures, which teachers saw as a major benefit of the advisor system.

> It is absolutely necessary for the teachers to know the whole program in the school in order to be a good advisor. Therefore, the teachers know the whole school program and not only those parts which are in their subject department. That is a really big plus for the students and their education.

Teachers saw the result of so much teacher-to-teacher communication and interaction. "Teachers are more open here with other teachers because of the advisor system contact with each other."

Instead of being secluded in separate classrooms and departments, teachers were constantly working with each other. Problems were shared and solutions were cooperatively solved. A sense of togetherness and unity of purpose were felt at the school due to the advisor system, as a veteran teacher explained.

> I was used to a homeroom, but this is more. It adds to the coherence of the faculty and everyone works together on solving problems. Both the advisor and the counselor talk to parents. Now it certainly adds to the workload, but I think it's worth it.

The role and effectiveness of the guidance department had also changed as a result of the teacher advisor program. In addition to reducing the advisor-to-student ratio from 300-to-1 to 25-to-1, the teacher advisor also did the routine paperwork that guidance counselors usually did (e.g., writing schedules, recording grades in permanent records). A manageable group size allowed daily communication that was impossible with hundreds of students assigned to one counselor. Students liked advisors because "having an advisor group is like seeing a counselor every day." Routine items were handled by advisors and more serious problems were sent to the counselors. Freed from the mountains of clerical work and routine questions, counselors were able to devote most of their time to those professional matters for which they were trained but often do not have time to do. Effective communication and interaction occurred because counselors now had time and support from the advisors. An advisor described the working relationship with the guidance department:

> I work quite closely with the counselor. For instance, if a student falls behind, I would hold conferences with the student, with the counselor, and then with both of them together. The counselor supports me and helps by calling parents to explain what is happening.

The advisors looked to the counselors "to fill the gaps for things we can't do" and also for personal assistance with student problems. From the counselors' perspective, the advisor system was very effective.

> I love the advisor system. It is a very strong factor in the school. My 15 teacher advisors are real strong because I have worked with them. Rather than send a kid to me, they will now come and ask my advice and handle it themselves. That means I work more with adults than kids now.

Through a team approach between teacher advisors and counselors, the students benefited from the increased communication and interaction.

The students, staff, administration, and parents recognized that there were some problems with their advisor system. During a 1979 staff meeting and needs assessment, four areas of concern were pinpointed. First, teachers desired flexibility in the daily time allotment for advisory groups. The most popular suggestion scheduled 15-minute periods four days a week and a 30-minute period once a week, with longer periods scheduled when particular activities needed it. Second, the staff asked for an advisor group coordinator to distribute the schedule of activities and materials for advisory groups. Third, the administration requested better classroom management for all advisors to limit noise and hall traffic during advisory period. Fourth, teachers wanted counselors to present each advisor with an updated summary of their students' credits at the beginning of each year. In addition to these suggestions for improvement, various other concerns about the teacher advisor program included the amount of extra work required of advisors, the variance of staff commitment to the concept, the actual role of advisors, and the need for inservice training of advisors.

Everyone agreed that being an advisor took a lot of time and involved a lot of extra work, especially clerical work. The difference seemed to be whether one felt the extra work was worth the result, or not. Most staff undoubtedly felt the advisor system was a major strength of the school but also wanted to see less paperwork. Some teachers were more critical.

> To be a good advisor is very difficult. It is a sixth preparation if you do it well. The amount of time in advisory group is short while the record keeping takes time to do consistently well every day.

> It's a good thing, but it's just killing people. One has to spend 20 minutes or more every night on the phone talking to parents in order to be a good advisor. That is just too much to ask along with five teaching periods.

From the parents' perspective, "The advisor system is a good idea but it's not working." Many pointed out that contacts with the home really occurred only "in trouble situations." The advisor-student communication was applauded, but the advisor-parent communication "is almost nonexistent in some cases." This lack of parent contact was attributed by some staff to the "reality of asking teachers to spend a half hour on the telephone every night and not even pay for long distance calls to parents."

The variability in teacher commitment to the advising responsibilities surfaced as a major concern. The administration admitted, "Some advisors are really committed, and some merely go through the motions." Some students did not have good experiences because "good teachers are not necessarily good advisors" and the good advisor groups were filled quickly. What it came down to was the advisor system was only as good as the individual advisors, and it was a good system only if it was pursued by the advisor. It was a problem that teachers were required to be advisors because, as many students and teachers remarked, "There is no way you can force people to be good advisors." Some staff complained that East was "individualized for students but not for teachers" because being an advisor was no longer voluntary.

Another problem existed as to what the actual role of an advisor was. Advisors had their own concept of what they were. Often, no matter what role the individual advisor had defined, it did not satisfy everyone. The result was chaotic, as a teacher pointed out.

> You are essentially a guidance counselor for 25 people. You are a camp counselor, advisor, priest, father, and mother. Sometimes that responsibility is too much and we aren't trained for it.

Other staff members believed, "Guidance and classroom teaching are distinctly separate." There was a conflict when teachers who were trained in subject fields and related on an academic level tried to use such an approach in advisor groups. These staff members explained, "We get close relationships with students but on a different level than typical advisors." This diversity of self-annointed advisor roles created problems for students who felt "the theory is good" but just did not work with some advisors because "they don't take their responsibilities seriously."

Perhaps the crucial issue here was the lack of any sustained inservice training of advisors. All staff agreed, "There hasn't been any organized training of new teachers coming into East so they know what the potential of the advisor system can be." The result was an unsystematic program without direction or coordination. Teachers were "doing their own thing" because they had never been told or trained otherwise. The entire perception of what advisors do or should do was suffering from a lack of orientation and development. Mr. Miller summed up the advisor system and its future at East High School as follows:

> East High School must revisit the philosophy of the advisor system and decide how it is different from the regular homeroom. We must ensure that counseling is occurring in advisory groups, and that advisors understand how to efficiently maintain progress sheets and segment recording daily. With better coordination and student control many innovative and meaningful activities can take place during advisory period. We just have to decide where we want to go together because we're all going off in our own directions now.

Thus, the administration of East High School significantly enhanced the communication networks and interactive patterns of the school through building an effective teacher advisor program. This important administrative communication process has been instrumental in monitoring student progress, organizing parent conferences, personalizing the school, encouraging student advocates, increasing intraschool communication, fostering student-teacher relationships, creating an awareness of the total school program, improving teacher-teacher communications, and redefining the guidance counselors' role.

Proposition Five: Staff Development

Although a strong teaching staff can keep schools operating on a day-to-day basis, those schools that wish to initiate or retain instructional programs that are vital and philosophically consistent must provide ongoing staff development and inservice training and utilize appropriate staff selection and orientation processes.

A strong, committed teaching staff can be the decisive factor for "staying afloat" when other forces are acting to "break the school apart." Yet, for schools that are concerned with more than surviving on a day-to-day basis, an articulated and carefully maintained staff development program is essential. Beginning with hiring and orienting new staff, staff development can serve as the process through which a school is able to choose its direction and pursue that course consistently and vigorously.

East High School's staff has been the "glue" that has held the school together through five administrations in the past four years. (Two principals, Johnson and Miller, served twice while Taylor was principal once.) The logistics of running classes and maintaining instruction in such a period of constant administrative turnover fell to the teaching staff. One teacher explained, "The East staff has allegiance to the school regardless of the principal." Teachers saw themselves as "very flexible" because of the nature of East's ever-changing instructional program. They generally agreed, "The staff handles change very well and is used to adjusting and adapting to most anything." This "spirit of willingness" has been a major characteristic of the staff's desire "to do all they can do to make the school program work." East teachers were always looking for the best thing for kids and "will turn things upside down and try something new if what's being done isn't working to their satisfaction." Everyone assumed responsibility at East, so teachers did not feel they had to carry some "weak links" in the school.

The staff's commitment was immense. Mr. Miller pointed out, "Our staff works long hours and provides unique instructional programs." The district administration believed, "Their record-keeping duties are above and beyond the call of duty." An East administrator noted, "Teachers are here late at night. Last night there was a teacher here at 8:00 working." One year the teachers kept a log of how many hours they spent at home on school work. A veteran teacher commented on the results, "The figures were unbelievable; I doubt the community has any idea of the time we spend here."

Many saw this commitment as a result of the relationship teachers at East had with their students. The teacher-student relationship was one of mutual understanding and respect. The faculty was a "top-notch" group of teachers, committed to students as human beings to be communicated with on an adult level. In turn, students perceived the staff as "devoted, knowledgeable, and friendly, with good relationships with students." When asked to define what was meant by "good teachers," one student enumerated three necessary characteristics:

> They must know the material really well, present that material to us clearly, and always be willing to help students.

That description described most of the East staff and accounted for the vigor the school had retained through leadership changes. However, one senior student lamented, "Teachers at East are better than at other schools, but not as good as before because so many original staff have left." While the strong commitment of the staff helped bring East through the recent years of administrative change, the added burden of the task and lack of clear direction and development from the principal's office added to a "burnout" problem at East. Attributed by staff to the "continuous intensity of the job," teacher "burnout" at East had become a serious problem. Mr. Miller had identified "teacher retention" as one of the major issues facing East High School today.

> Three math teachers left East for private business since mid-summer. We must study the real reasons why they left if we are to address this problem as we should.

Although conflict with administrators, professional advancement, and the "crushing avalanche of paperwork" were cited as reasons why there was so much turnover in East's committed staff, "burnout" remained the biggest problem to teachers. As an experienced teacher explained,

> There are an awful lot of people who are leaving here because the work load is just too high. The expectations for us to perform are quite high and people just don't see the rewards over the long haul. They go to industry instead.

Administrators had become increasingly aware of hazards of the intensity and commitment required by teachers at East. A newly appointed teacher was impressed but not deterred by the administration.

> I was warned very carefully from the beginning that this was a high energy job. At every step of the interviewing process I was told that my time would be very limited. I still took the job because I wanted the challenge.

Without any staff development program aimed at the "burnout" problem, telltale signs were beginning to show at East that the staff could not muster the energy to give that added time as well as in years past. A veteran teacher related the obvious changes:

> We used to have faculty meetings until 4:30 or later, and used to be here until 4:00 every night. Now you go out at 3:10 and the parking lot is empty. Yes, teachers are tired of giving so much of their time.

While outsiders and newcomers were impressed by the commitment of the staff, it was not as great as before because of the pressures of operating a school in the midst of changing principals, and the failure of the principals to address the issue. A teacher explained what the absence of a staff development program had caused.

> Because there are a number who have been here a long time and are burned out, they are pulling away from the team effort. I think I am. I am not committed to being enthusiastic and giving my time to teaching as I once was. There is a tendency to let the lowly motivated student slide and not do the work necessary to motivate them.

Some veteran teachers, however, felt that East's flexibility kept "burnout" even lower than it would be under the same circumstances in a more traditional school. Many teachers felt, "'Burnout' would never apply to this school because you aren't forced to be the the same all of the time." The staff believed the option to do things differently could often mean the possibility of staying instead of leaving.

> The school is not as rigid and traditional as most schools and if you get burned with one way, you can change and try it differently next year. That makes it easier to adjust here in some ways than it is in other schools.

Nevertheless, the fact was that "burnout" was such a big problem at

East that only 13 percent of its original staff were left in the school's ninth year of existence.

The lack of a staff development program had not only encouraged staff turnover, but had also hindered the instructional program's direction and vitality. The current principal stated, "The greatest weakness of East is the lack of staff development." Mr. Miller saw immediate steps that must be taken in this area and had proposed a staff retreat as one way of addressing the problem.

> Teachers were hired without continuous progress orientation. East needs continuous progress inservice and workshops on the advisor system, individualization, and the participatory democracy concept as soon as possible. New teachers need training and older teachers need retraining.

The current staff development program consisted of voluntary summer workshops by the district, a series of subject department afternoon workshops for new teachers, and a couple days of discussion within each school in the fall before school started. When East first opened with Mr. Johnson as principal, weekly faculty meetings were held to discuss the school's philosophy and current issues. Veteran teachers remembered these meetings as helping "to orient us as to what East was all about." In the past, a large number of staff took Glaser courses and worked together on the ideas, "but now we do very little of that." Generally, the veteran teachers believed teachers "were into all the long meetings then" and have lost that aspect of their commitment. The lack of common development activities has left a more split faculty than once was at East, and that bothered some teachers.

> Through the years, staff development has gone from a lot to nothing. That's why we aren't as close as we used to be. Even faculty turnover hasn't changed our staff relations. We had two new faculty members this year and I didn't even know who they were.

The inservice needs were fully apparent to the staff and administration alike. There was no doubt but that the instructional program was suffering from the lack of trained staff. A teacher described the situation:

> There is no inservice training here. For the first two years there was inservice training, but now we don't do that anymore. Now things are going okay only because everyone is in their own little niche and there is no real crisis. However, we are not all competent in self-pacing, nor do we all understand continuous progress. For example, one of my advisees is in a self-paced class. She wants to be there, but she's a talker and needs to be sat on. The teacher has come to me recommending group-pacing for the student because the teacher has not worked with individually-paced students before and does not know how to help the student learn individually-paced discipline. Now the problem there is the skill of the teacher, but proper inservicing has not been done to help that teacher learn those skills.

The lack of a staff development program at East has meant that the general direction of the school was changing, as one staff member put it, "for the wrong reasons--not because traditional schooling is better, but because it's easier and teachers don't have the necessary continuous progress inservice training." There was much disagreement at East over the proper direction of the school.

Instead of healthy discussion of the school's philosophy and direction, the lack of staff meetings and activities had forced teachers to demonstrate their opinion on this issue by conducting their classes however they believed was best. The ensuing confusion was duly noted by a student:

> The older teachers at East are more devoted to the philosophy of the school because the newer teachers didn't go through the conceptualization of the school.

A veteran teacher agreed, "There definitely is a split between new and old staff as a result of not having staff development activities over the years. Now we don't have the contact we once did." The last time the staff met regularly was five years ago. A staff member recalled,

> We spent a year of weekly meetings deciding on our philosophy for the regional evaluation. We created our own school philosophy. That was a time of great solidarity. We knew what we were about.

Since then things have drifted as the administration kept changing. The school lacked the clarity of direction it once had with every teacher and department "doing their own thing." Ongoing inservice was needed to help reorganize and rethink the purpose of the school. The biggest question at East was, "Where is the school going?" The problem was that the lack of a staff development program has left everyone with either a shrug of their shoulders, or a personal viewpoint. Both responses presented serious difficulties for a school trying to implement a comprehensive educational plan for its students. A veteran teacher saw the situation as deteriorating.

> The school needs strong redirection to get back to its individualization philosophy and curriculum. There are currently lots of good course offerings but the continuous progress methods are missing, so individualization exists only in a student's ability to choose a class from a large selection listing.

There were, of course, many staff members who believed the current trend toward more traditional schooling at East was wonderful. However, what the school was doing was dramatically different than what the school said it was doing. A strong staff development program would have addressed the issue, made decisions, and implemented them so the staff would know where it was going and would use consistent methods to get there.

Much of the blame for East's philosophical and directional drift was placed on the staff selection process. Staff members believed, "A school has to have the right hiring procedure that will get the right people if it is going to remain committed to its philosophy." Three teachers of varying tenure and views on the direction of the school all agreed that the direction of a school depended on its staff.

> The selection process didn't hire the proper people for the program that is here. And the evaluation process hasn't been honest enough to tell teachers they don't belong at this kind of school. As a result, East has lots of teachers who shouldn't be here.

> Fortunately, East is becoming more conventional with most departments offering group-paced as well as self-paced courses. This has happened mostly because of the change of personnel with new teachers hired who are not dedicated to continuous progress.
>
> New teachers were hired without any understanding or commitment to continuous progress. Teachers transferred into East because of the district's teacher surplus with enrollment declines. Teachers were hired for coaching and not teaching. All of this together caused erosion of the school's original philosophy.

The hiring problem was compounded by the lack of adequate staff orientation for new East teachers. This was not always the case because there were orientation workshops the first few years. Now, however, there were none. A teacher described the present orientation method:

> New teachers walk in off the street and are flung into team situations without any real orientation or inservice training. The motto of the school seems to be: "Sink or Swim." With little training for this unique school, the diverse backgrounds of the teachers work against the situation because of the lack of common ground amongst the staff.

This "seat of the pants" approach where "questions are answered but information is not volunteered" was quite different from what the situation used to be, as a teacher explained.

> We spent two entire days before school writing learning packages and analyzing the school philosophy, whereas now they don't even know what the philosophy is.

The burden of orienting fell to department team leaders, but it had become a big problem in some departments because of their high teacher turnover. The result was that some teachers had to rely on their students for information. As a new teacher related, "In my first year, the kids knew more than I did about the school's program, and they taught me." Another teacher noted, "There are no guides available to use and no clear paths laid out for the new teachers to follow." But a veteran teacher summed it up best:

> It's not surprising that we don't have any staff development or new staff orientation because lots of schools don't. What is surprising is that part of our original program has survived in spite of this failure to train our teachers. It absolutely boggles my mind to think of what this school could do if it had some inservice.

A strong and carefully implemented staff development program can help a school choose its educational plan and follow it consistently. A strong, committed staff is a very real asset to any school, but left to themselves, a staff may follow contradictory paths, lower their efforts, and suffer from "burnout." Good inservice training can reduce the possibility of such problems, just as appropriate selection procedures and orientation for new staff can help invigorate a school and maintain its direction. Often shelved, or relegated to low priority, staff development can make the difference between a good school and one merely open for business as usual.

Proposition Six: Decision Making

Varying amounts of both formal and informal input are desired by different groups within the school community for various issues and decisions.

The customary school hierarchy of the board of education at the top and students at the bottom, with district personnel, school administrators, staff, and parents somewhere in the middle, can be used as the basis for a chain of command decision-making model. In practice, however, many decisions are made on the school level with varying amounts of input from members of the school community. Whether this input is through informal networks or formal structures, the extent of involvement desired by each person or group differs depending on the issue. It becomes the administration's task, then, to foster satisfaction by determining how much participation is wanted by members of the school community on pending decisions, and how valuable that input would be under the circumstances.

East High School, now led by its third principal, has had a fluctuating decision-making process depending on the administrator's personal preference. This has meant that staff, student, and parental input has changed over the years as the formal structures and informal networks have been altered.

The teaching staff generally felt that their role in the decision-making process "is not as much as it was in the past," although Mr. Miller's administration was taking steps to allow the total staff more direct input than it had during Mr. Taylor's year of tenure. Although many staff said that Johnson seemed to make decisions himself whereas Taylor asked for staff input, teachers also noted that Johnson seemed more accessible because of the process he used (entire staff meetings as opposed to departmental chairperson meetings) for discussion and input. Miller's intent was to use both forums, large monthly meetings to satisfy socialization and communication needs and weekly chairperson meetings to funnel staff input and discuss concerns. The staff reaction to this new participatory decision-making format was positive.

> When Johnson was here there were many faculty meetings. Some nights we would not get out until 5:00. We routinely had one or two faculty meetings per month. Taylor was totally against faculty meetings, and we had maybe three the entire year. He gathered and disseminated all information through the eleven team leaders. Now with Miller we'll get the best of both worlds.

One key to the staff's approval was Miller's decision to hold more faculty meetings to allow formal staff input. Teachers had felt left out under "Taylor's blackout policy" of no total staff meetings. Not only was the direct formal channel to the administration cut, but the lack of meetings disturbed the teachers because it "inhibited social contacts among the staff and thereby restricted knowledge of the school's curriculum by the total staff." This created a situation where there was poor communication between departments "so nobody knew what other departments were doing."

In addition, the use of team leaders solely as messengers to the administration made East more departmentalized. Taylor's policy was in direct contrast to Johnson who used to hold regular faculty meetings where teachers could really talk to each other. Most staff agreed that Miller had a better idea because "not a lot can be solved in big meetings, but they're good for social contact." Above all, with regular faculty meetings in which concerns were aired and discussed the staff perceived itself to have a voice when necessary.

By contrast, Taylor's revamping of the input structures made those teachers who were designated as team leaders more powerful than before at the expense of the remainder of the staff who were deprived of their formal voice. One team leader described the situation as follows:

> Decision making at East has been very open. I have had input. I was listened to, and decisions took our inputs into account. The team leaders are considered to have a fair amount of power. They meet with the administration once a week, but they come back for input from their department members.

The staff pointed out several problems with this method of structuring their input. As mentioned before, things had become more department head oriented. This, of course, placed a lot of responsibility on one individual selected by the administration for each group of teachers. The staff agreed, "How much gets down to the individual department teacher depends totally on their team leader." Likewise, how much the team leader brought up the concerns of their respective department was totally in the hands of that team leader. Although this could have been a potential difficulty, team leaders were generally quite responsive to their departments, and very candid in their weekly meetings to each other and the administration. An atmosphere of mutual respect and trust was encouraged by the Miller administration.

Within that administration the newly appointed vice principal was quite impressed with what he saw in his first month at East.

> This staff has the strongest role in decision-making of any school that I have worked at. Here there is no hierarchy established, only colleagues working together. The faculty feel completely at ease in making recommendations, so staff input is very, very high.

However, some East staff members disagreed completely with the vice principal's analysis. One team leader tried to put things in perspective:

> There is no decision-making role for the general staff and only a limited role for team leaders. Miller will have the team leaders help more because he's not over-confident like Taylor was and just went through the motions with team leader meetings. Johnson got more staff input and would change his mind when the staff disagreed with him, but Taylor restricted input to team leaders and then wasn't easily swayed by them.

This view was reinforced by other staff members who felt that in the past the staff "has had very little real involvement and has just resigned themselves to the situation." Sometimes a decision was made unilaterally without input, as with Taylor's decision one summer to change the advisor group meeting time from before first period to after first period. At other times, staff input was received but ignored, as was the case with the over-use of the school's public address system. Teachers knew that even when they had input on a policy, "the final decision rests with the principal and not a unanimous staff." Citing the importance of an administrator's behavior on this issue, a teacher explained, "How much the staff feels listened to depends on the principal's personality, but we always feel manipulated anyway." Summing up the situation, one veteran teacher commented, "They're all benevolent dictators when you come right down to it, but that's fine with me."

The staff's accepting attitude was as common as it was because the dissatisfaction with the formal avenues of participation in decision making had led to a vast informal network. East principals had always been highly visible, readily accessible, and consistently guided by an open door policy. Just as information filtered into the administration through individual contacts outside the formal structure, so did the information filter out of the administrative offices and meetings through the informal network. An experienced teacher explained how the network affected the staff:

> I find out about administrative decisions from other teachers and from the aides. We get bulletins and daily announcements, but the really important things are told to me by the other informal sources.

This situation has worked because teachers carved out their own niche where they could isolate themselves from administrative decisions and retain their own control. So, while the staff had given the administration the reins of the school, teachers had retained control in their classroom and in instructional issues.

> Within our own departments, we have a choice of when we teach, where we teach, how many days we spend in a group, and how we teach. Otherwise, every staff member feels comfortable going into the office, but as far as formal decision-making means, I don't think we have any.

Thus, teachers retained "total autonomy" in their classes, and were consulted and involved considerably in changes in the curriculum and the philosophy. This broad scope of decisional issues was really what the staff desired most of all, for they were instructors and not administrators. Wisely, the past building administrations had all encouraged the staff to be fully involved in this aspect of decision making. As a result, bold changes had taken place.

> We had the freedom to determine we should group-pace. By presenting facts and figures, we convinced the administration of the need for the change, and the change to group-paced classes in math took place.

Over the years, the staff had developed a sense of power and influence, especially over particular issues that really matter to them. Input had tended to be informal and on an issue-by-issue basis. Teachers noted their confidence, "What we say is listened to, so we can change things." Teachers attributed this power to the staff's ability to rally together when necessary on important issues which was impressive to superordinates. This aspect of the administration-staff relationship was described by a teacher.

> Many matters are decided by the administration routinely, and that's as it should be. However, on issues dealing with teaching in the classroom, the teacher is the decision maker. Also, when an item really means something to us, we decide. For example, we fought with the administration about excluding students from the teachers' planning area. We talked this out, voted, and that was the final decision accepted, so students cannot come into our area whenever they want to now.

The building administration tried to allow staff input to fluctuate with the interest and expertise of the staff on different issues. The district administration had also felt pressure from the East staff on issues important to teachers. The most important of all of these was the recent promotion of Mr. Miller to East's principalship. After an entire summer and half of the autumn without a replacement named for Mr. Taylor, East teachers united for an endorsement of Mr. Miller, then the vice principal. His subsequent appointment pleased the staff not only for his ability, but also for the staff's ability to influence important decisions. A teacher discussed this issue of teacher "clout."

> My assumptions are that teachers really have a powerful voice. When we put pressure on, it seems like we can get results. Teachers feel that it was their pressure that got Mr. Miller appointed as our principal. They wanted him and they went to the board with their endorsement.

District administrators and members of the board of education agreed that it was the teachers' action that tipped the balance for

Miller's appointment. While everyone pointed out that this was a unique case, and that teachers normally did not have a voice in personnel matters, teachers explained that they never tried to influence such personnel decisions before and currently had no intentions of trying to repeat their endorsement action.

Just as the teachers had a weak formal structure for input into the decision-making process, so did students. East administrations had tried to involve students in decisional issues in which they had expressed interest. One of Mr. Miller's objectives as a new principal was to strengthen the students' formal role in the school's participatory decision-making model. The new administration "wants to see increased student input and responsibility, even along programmatic lines, because students are the end product of all our decisions." Many staff felt this renewed awareness in student decision-making input on important schoolwide issues should benefit East's entire school community.

The East student body, although praised as "our greatest strength" and "a model of interracial harmony" by teachers, was also described as "apathetic" by most everyone. Yet, students were not seen as irresponsible by the staff because East emphasized student decision making on personal issues. A student explained, "Many courses are self-paced and teach kids responsibility for themselves which other kids don't get until college." Teachers believed their continuous progress curriculum "forces the students to face their own responsibility for not finishing a course." As one student pointed out when asked about student decision making, "The idea that whatever is done is a student's responsibility is emphasized here a lot; I'm responsible for my life, and that means I have to make lots of decisions."

The largest area of student decision making was the area that affected them the most--academic course work. Students participated actively at East by choosing their own courses, making changes in their schedule, and finding ways to do their work better. Student decision making was emphasized by "giving kids more latitude than in other schools about their curriculum and schedule." The teachers saw this as a major strength of East, as expressed by a staff member:

> It's different than the kind of school I went to or you probably went to. This school helps kids learn how to make choices by giving them more say in how they spend their time. They choose what classes to take, who to take them from, at what time of day, and who their advisor will be. They are responsible for finishing a course and for moving through the requirements.

To reinforce this personal decision-making aspect of East, teachers asked students to help design and restructure courses. Rather than make excuses why student suggestions would not work, teachers took the input seriously and even made changes they preferred not to make. As one teacher observed, "Kids wanted a group-paced option in the English department, so the English department changed their course offerings to allow for that." A veteran teacher in another department explained, "In developing my curriculum, I have a great deal of input from the students. I have always done that, and a number of our staff do likewise." One student summed up the East attitude as "teachers always listening to kids and responding to our needs."

One need that was felt at East was the establishment of a student government association. Since its formation several years ago, the Student Government Association (SGA) had been the focus of formal student decision-making power in the school's organizational structure. However, as in many student governments, the SGA found itself in the middle of controversy. It was supposed to function as a liaison between students, staff, and administration, but its effectiveness was a matter of differing opinion among all groups of the school community. Some teachers felt the SGA was doing the best it could.

> The SGA is effective for a majority of the kids. It has been trying to get more involvement from the student body, but East kids have so much and are used to having so much that it's hard to motivate them with any incentive like prizes because they already have everything they want or don't want anyone else to know they don't.

Other teachers thought the problem with SGA was, "It only serves a small group of students." Another staff member thought, "SGA's biggest problem is getting respect from the faculty." That was difficult because teachers knew that the SGA had "no effect on the actual functioning of the school because it can only deal with periphery matters." Many teachers agreed, "The SGA should have more power so it could be more effective and do something important instead of piddly things like dances." A somewhat disillusioned teacher was discouraged by what was happening at East.

> Kids are involved very little with no input to really speak of. There are lots of frustrated kids because the SGA is just a rubber stamp.

Students were also divided over SGA. An East junior thought, "The SGA tries to help the school, but if the principal wants something, he can do it even if the SGA disagrees." While those in the SGA tried hard to make it effective, they were critical of its limitations. An active student in SGA believed it would never really be effective and gain respect until it was given something significant to do.

> Students don't have much weight in decision making at East. It's nice to say that kids are involved, but the administration and staff will do whatever they want to anyway.

What will become of SGA depended mostly, as everyone knew, on what Mr. Miller wanted to do. As a believer in more student input at East, Miller would like to strengthen the SGA and establish "a student advisory council with referral power to focus on peer counseling." That was part of his objective "to get more kids involved in a moving part of the school--sports, music, drama, activities." He believed that will give students "ownership in the school which will make it a more meaningful experience for them."

Generally, teachers believed East students could be "involved a lot if they want to be." In addition to the daily personal decision-making involvement of every student, the SGA, the grievance committee, advisor rapport, class counsels, and an administrative open door policy were cited as examples of opportunities for kids, which is why everyone agreed, "Students are more involved at East than any other school in the district." Although students lacked any real power in the formal decision-making process of the school, there were many staff members who believed that is the way it should have been. As one experienced teacher commented,

> East is too permissive in that students are babied here. Because kids are allowed to question openly, the traditional signs of respect are gone. Sometimes students are just too informal and casual with teachers. And we have to accept part of the blame for that because we accept that attitude rather than demand things from these kids.

Three other significant groups in the school community had also been excluded from the mainstream of the decision-making structure. Parents, although initially active on many committees when the school first opened, had become inactive members of the school community. One of Mr. Miller's objectives was to rebuild the Parent-Teacher-Student Association (PTSA) into a strong group and to strive for increased parental involvement in all facets of the school program.

The group of aides and clerical staff were also usually on the outside looking in, although they felt "included when it directly pertains to us, like operating the new Xerox machine." The principal and departmental chairpersons took it upon themselves to invite the aides to meetings when necessary. There was not any formal participation in the process or any representative of this segment of the school community.

The principal's two assistants had also been excluded from any active role in the decision-making structure in the past. Whereas Johnson and Taylor ran the school without their assistants' regular input, Miller believed more in the administrative team approach and immediately took steps "to involve the vice principal and administrative assistant so they know what's going on and they're not left out as before." Redefined roles and job responsibilities, as well as weekly administrative team meetings, had already made an impact on the decision-making process at East. Decisions were discussed among administrators rather than unilaterally made by the principal. This is not to say that East was a captainless ship, because while Miller believed in participatory decision making, he also felt strongly that leadership must be exerted and guidance given for direction to avoid wandering in circles and inaction.

Although the school's formal decision-making structure was in a period of transition, the administration was aware that the participants desired varying amounts of both formal and informal input depending on the issues and decisions. While the teachers strongly desired a direct formal voice to the administration through faculty meetings, the principal realized that the most important area to the staff was in curriculum and instructional matters. Similarly, while formal input was limited by the current structure, there was unlimited opportunity for staff informal input because of the administration's accessibility. Student participation was concentrated in students' area of concern through daily personal decision making about courses. As with the staff, the students' formal input into programmatic decisions was limited, but informal input was easily made. Finally, formal participation by parents and aides was almost nonexistent, which shifted all communication to the informal networks on an issue-by-issue basis. As for the administrators, the formation of an administrative team with greater input and responsibility was indicative of the new direction now being pursued.

Proposition Seven: Home-School-Community Relations

Communities and parents can be more supportive when schools regularly involve and inform them through well established formal communication networks and programs.

The task of keeping citizens informed about the school customarily falls to the administration, whose efforts in this area may mean the difference between community support and revolt. A constituency which knows and understands the entire story by being well informed can be very supportive while one which is ill informed and must rely on hearsay can be very antagonistic. Building and maintaining a knowledgeable and supportive constituency takes careful planning and vigilance by school officials.

East High School, as conceived by the master plan of Maryville, should be "a working integral part of the community" rather than just a building for classes. Unfortunately, the concept had never seen fruition because the parents and community never really grasped what was happening at their school, and the school did not consistently inform and involve the community. A central office administrator pointed to the problem as follows:

> There was not a good effort by Johnson to educate parents as to what East was doing. Taylor did a good job in trying to reduce the community's confusion by meeting parents in his series of neighborhood coffees. But it takes more than one year to fill the previous gap of seven years. The school must do the job itself and not rely on our district public information office like Johnson did.

East had embarked on a project to continue the momentum started during Taylor's year as principal. Mr. Miller believed that East "needs continuous communication with parents about what East and its continuous progress curriculum are all about." He was instituting an evening program where he and/or the vice principal were available at the school one evening a week "for parents to come in and discuss their concerns." In addition, the vice principal was embarking on an effort to bring more parents into the building during the day.

> I want them here and want them to visit their kid's classes to see first hand what we're doing.

All of this was being done in an effort to improve home-school-community relations and reverse the poor reputation the school had in some parts of the community. A veteran teacher explained,

> East has a stigma in the community of being a wild, unstructured place where kids can do whatever they want to do, and consequently don't learn very much. The reputation is undeserved now but is a holdover from the first two chaotic years of the school.

Efforts to improve the school's image over the past several years have been somewhat successful, but a lot of work was still needed.

> Parents used to be upset at the seeming chaos and lack of control in the school, but the feeling of the community to the school has improved in recent years, especially since Miller came and made students accountable.

There were some staff who felt that changing the community's image of the school had resulted in more than personnel changes.

> It has inhibited our progress and growth as a school because we've spent our time working in the community rather than on our program.

Others, however, pointed to the unanticipated benefits to the school's program from the increased community activity by the school. Advisors, as the primary contact with parents and students had a more productive role as a result of East's push to contact more parents, as one advisor related.

> I have had lots of parents tell me that my contact is over and above any they have ever had with any other school. I feel if you keep close contact with the parents, then you can make better judgments about their child.

Increased parental contact by advisors was not only building community support but was also building the school's program with respect to personalizing education and helping students' affective growth. Parents highly approved of this sort of communication and desired more of it. One said, "Parents of advisor groups should have regular meetings together with their child's advisor to get to know the school, the advisor, and other parents better." With the advisor system in place, East could use it as an extraordinarily effective vehicle for improved home-school-community relations.

Another aspect of reporting to parents was a constant source of frustration and problems. The quarterly report cards tried to reflect the continuous progress philosophy and curriculum of the school, but often merely confused parents. Mr. Miller saw current communication procedures with parents as a major weakness of the school. He said, "East needs better communication with parents as to where their kids are in their high school program." Parents wholeheartedly agreed, "More communication to parents is needed to keep parents informed about their children." Some parents were disillusioned because "there's always too much talk about this aspect of East and not enough action." The staff also pointed to the report cards as a major problem the school must address.

> Deficiency reports don't get to parents because kids bring them home rather than the school mailing them, and we never know what happens because they don't need to be signed. Parents don't even understand the report cards because they're so complicated. As a result, parents don't know what is going on at East, and their relationship with the school is poor.

Students agreed, "Parents don't understand what's going on at the school because there's very little communication home except an occasional letter." The resulting school climate, as one teacher described, was "frustration everywhere because nobody understands what's going on here and why." An experienced teacher gave an example of how serious a problem improper reporting to parents was.

> I don't know if each course is identified as self-paced or group-paced. I am a teacher here and I don't know, so parents don't know either. Maybe parents should be warned a bit more. In fact, the whole ballgame of parent education could be strengthened here, including understanding the report card. Nothing is put on the report card that the kid is failing. They don't understand an "I" for "Incomplete" is the same as a failure. There needs to be parent education about the report card. Interpreting the report card is a real problem so that parents don't know their child may not graduate until it's too late.

As the major source of information about their child's academic performance most parents receive, report cards should be clear and easily understood. Reporting to parents could be more than quarterly report cards or deficiency reports, as East High School was learning. Parents expected and appreciated more personal contact, and the advisor system was starting to provide that necessary additional network.

Parental and community expectations for the school were also important perceptions that school officials took into account when formulating a home-school-community relations program. East parents held "high expectations" for both their children and their school.

Some parents expected "the school to do the parenting," which created difficulties if the school did not communicate to the parents what exactly it was doing. Other members of the community expected the school "to ease racial tensions through integration efforts." East had been very successful in this area, but too many parental expectations could easily overburden the school when the school did not try to "set the record straight." Scheduling and staffing could also be difficult at East because there was a lot of parental pressure for "the academic courses." Noncollege preparatory courses always started the school year with very low enrollments "which then build up as more and more kids drop the courses they can't handle." Teachers felt the school "has not tried to erase the stigma attached to the noncollege courses" so that parents understood the situation better. As it was, parental expectations were endangering the number of course offerings and areas of staffing when East's September figures were measured against the district's quotas without taking annual trends into account.

Parental and community expectations played a significant role at East because of the influence parents had in Maryville. The new assistant principal was annoyed at the role of parents at East and in the district. He said, "Parents have a large input here and a large say about what goes on in the school." Staff members generally agreed with this analysis of the situation.

> Parents can move mountains in this district. Specifically, here in this school they have a voice. They come through the PTSA or as an individual

> and can always see the principal. Parents do go to the board of education, and then we may get some flack because parents have more to say about what happens in school than the teachers do. Generally, what the parents want is approved by the board.

Parents also agreed that the schools were very responsive to them. The schools and the teachers were seen as "very accessible to parents," always with a "willingness to adapt programs to the individual needs of the kids." With such influence, the staff of East recognized the importance of gaining the positive support of parents and they were working in that direction.

East parents already were generally supportive of the school efforts, especially athletics, music, and drama. Mr. Miller was happy to note, "Most anything the school undertakes to do, the parents and community members support." Coaches pointed out that the athletic booster club "gives more money to the athletic program than the district." There was mixed opinion, however, when it came to academic support. Some staff saw parents as "open for change" and "accepting of our experiments, even when they failed." Others blamed the current trend toward a more traditional school on "the community's reluctance to support something different" and "constant parental criticism." However, both sides agreed that parents have never really understood what the school was doing, so they were supporting or fighting something about which they were not well informed. As one teacher said, "Who knows what whould have happened if they knew what they were talking about?"

Although the traditional booster groups were supportive, everyone agreed that there was very little parental involvement at East. The PTSA "is almost nonexistent" and its programs were very poorly attended, as were other parent programs. A veteran teacher described the situation as follows:

> The parents of the kids in sports are involved in the booster clubs. A few are in the PTSA, but I haven't had that much contact with parents. I have to say there is very little involvement.

Previously, the PTSA was active with very heavy involvement of its education committee. Another veteran teacher lamented that parents were not involved as much as they used to be, and parent volunteers were not at the school anymore. She said, "When I first came, we had parent volunteers who would do a lot of the recording for us, but there aren't any left."

There were many ideas as to why parental involvement at East had dropped off so drastically. Many teachers attributed the decline to the increase in the homes where both parents worked and "just don't have the time." As one teacher put it, "They're too busy trying to pay off their enormous mortgages." Other staff members believed parents were "involved in other projects" in the community, which accounted for their attendance at games and performances but no other time for involvement. Another teacher emphasized, "It's not any different than any other high school I have taught at." One veteran teacher philosophized, "When we are successful, they don't worry about what is happening." Some teachers noted, "When kids get this age, parents don't want to be involved." That view was supported by students who pointed out, "East parents are apathetic like most parents of high school kids." But one student saw things differently, "The East atmosphere breeds independence so parents are not needed for involvement like at other schools."

Some staff members, however, put the blame on the school itself for not involving parents. One said, "The school doesn't do anything to push involvement." Or as another teacher put it, "We don't go to parents much; we let them seek out their own level of involvement." But another staff member saw it as even more serious of a problem and said, "Parents are frustrated with this school because their suggestions and concerns aren't dealt with or tried. They've simply given up trying to help East High School."

Other teachers were certain that there should be more parental involvement but did not know if the decline was "by their choice or by our failings." The answer came succinctly from a parent who had several children at East. She said,

> It's true that most parents work when their kids get into high school so they don't have as much time. But more than that, parents are confused and don't understand open schools, so they're very suspicious. There is very little information for parents with only the quarterly PTSA newsletter sent home. The main thing is that parents are frightened and confused by East High School, so they stay away.

Parents generally want to be kept well informed about their child's progress, and the teacher advisor system can be a very effective network for this type of communication, as well as clear and concise written reports. Uninformed parents can have unrealistic expectations for the schools, and such misperceptions can lead to serious difficulties, including erosion of support for the school. Parental and community involvement in the school can be seen as a direct result of how well schools regularly involve and inform them through well established, formal communication networks and programs.

Proposition Eight: Special Programs

Staffs of schools that receive additional resources for special programs are affected by their own perceptions of the school's programs as well as those held by others outside the school.

Some schools receive additional funding, staffing, and materials to operate a variety of special programs for their students. The extra resources can seriously affect a school staff's perception of itself, as reflected in its own self-image. Although this change in self-image can be beneficial for a school community, it can also be detrimental, especially if the program is perceived as having exceptionally low or high status. Likewise, perceptions that outsiders have for a school can also be affected by a school's special program receiving additional resources. Again, the relative status bestowed on the school because of the special programs influences how the school is viewed by outsiders. Furthermore, the balance of a competitive situation with other schools and districts can change drastically as a result of such programs. All of these factors interact and can, in turn, exert pressure on the school to bolster itself as an institution at the expense of the original program.

East High School, as a model school from its inception, received a Title III grant to help implement its model school program. After the first several years, the district funded East's model school program, as well as one middle school and one elementary school. A district administrator described the model school program as follows:

> The intent was to have a single school at each of our three levels to be on the cutting edge of innovation. They pilot and experiment for all of the district schools. The district has been willing to fund these schools so far.

The funding for East had meant five extra staff positions, ten paraprofessional aides, printing equipment, and a small budget for activities. The board of education, because of budget constraints, was considering discontinuing the special funding for East and the other two model schools. The district administration analyzed the situation as follows:

> The board is questioning whether the available money is being spent the best way. The three model schools have to report to the board next month about what they are doing, how they have assessed their program, and what they are going to do in the future. Each program will be looked at closely before spending

> money and that will put a shade on innovation. Any unwillingness to spend freely will limit innovation. And if we cannot show that the model school program is working well, then East will lose its extra staffing.

The possibility of losing its special status as a model school had "sent shivers" through the staff of East High School, as well as some concerned district personnel. Parents, described as "upwardly mobile and status conscious," were also upset at the possibility of East "becoming another regular school." To counteract the first rumblings of funding cuts, new measures were put into effect a year ago. Previously, Mr. Johnson had a free rein in the use of extra staff and money, but closer board scrutiny made such "freeflowing experimentation" difficult to defend on the basis of "positive results for the district as a whole." Mr. Taylor's administration saw the introduction of accountability and objectives for the program. Extra staff positions were divided among departmental chairpersons, with each hour designated as either development of materials or experimentation of new programs. The entire focus of East was shifted to dissemination of materials to other district schools to justify the funding to the board, as a district administrator explained.

> A number of the things in the arts, music, and drama have been transported to other schools in the past year in addition to the advisory system. But most of what has been passed to other schools has been in the curriculum area of individualized learning packets and an attempt to extend each student to his or her fullest. This is beginning to take hold, and this past year we brought in department heads from other schools to East.

District and school personnel were scrambling to think of enough dissemination projects "with impressive colorful covers" to present to the board as justification for funding. The emphasis was not on the programs for their ability to meet students' needs, but for their ability to meeting funding mandates. Thus, the freewheeling, innovative school found itself dictated to by funding criteria. Indeed, as one staff member pointed out, "The tail is wagging the dog."

This change in focus had left more than one staff member displeased with East staff's new self-perception. Some were upset with the "sell-out" in chasing funding rather than proving excellence through curriculum improvement.

> I don't know what East is modeling now because it certainly isn't the progressive and flexible school they say it is. Our master schedule becomes more restrictive as we lock ourselves into programs and ideas that are financially sound but not educationally sound.

But Mr. Miller maintained that East would "continue trying reasonable things if there is a recognized need for improvement." He believed it was important for the school and staff to remain flexible and adaptable because that's the basis of East's philosophy." Nevertheless, he was extremely concerned about the impact that the loss of model school funding could have on the school.

> We would lose two of our three operations completely--production of curricular materials and dissemination. As for the continuance of instructional excellence at East for our own students, a train with less cars still runs but carries fewer passengers. We would be hurting.

Much of the school community was in total agreement with their principal. Teachers feared "losing the things that make our program work--aides and materials." Students expressed their concern about funding and support for the model schools program in the school newspeper. Parents contacted board members to show their support. Generally, the school community did not mind the "slight change in focus" with the funding as much as it was panicked by a "total collapse" without the funding.

The staff's self-image, as a result of being a model school, had a lot to do with the funding zeal. East teachers liked their model school status because it gave them a chance "to try new things--like a computer class." The staff saw themselves as different because they worked in a model school and were encouraged to be "innovative and different." A teacher proudly and happily remarked, "I teach my course differently than anyone else in the district." Another teacher felt that being a model school encouraged professionalism.

> There are good and poor teachers at East like at every school, but the feeling here is that this school is a little bit special, so the staff should do more for kids than average schools. There's more of a professional obligation by teachers as a result.

Students also felt there was something unique about East because of its special status in the district. Students reported, "Everybody says it's the best school in the district." Many were glad to be at East rather than at one of the other seven comprehensive high schools in the district. A transfer student noted, "When

I was at Lincoln High, a lot of people wanted to get out of there and come here." A veteran teacher explained that the school's self-image was a direct result of its model school status for so many years.

> Our teachers are constantly searching for new and better ways to do things, and we are in enough of a free atmosphere that we can experiment because we're a model school. We experiment in curriculum, teaching styles, and human relations. Since part of being hired at East is because of a person's unique capabilities, the staff strives to do bigger and better things. And that attitude is passed on to new teachers every year.

In addition to being affected by its own perceptions of its programs, East's staff was feeling increasing influence and pressure resulting from the perceptions of those outside the school as a result of its model school status and funding. The major influence was felt from the district office about the funding issue. While the central administration was convinced the model school funding could not continue "unless East's program is justified through its dissemination efforts," district personnel were pushing East in that direction because they were convinced the school needed the funding to operate. A district administrator observed,

> It would be hard to run East High School the way it is designed without additional money because of the openness. The aides are necessary for record keeping and are essential for continuous progress courses. East also needs extra teachers to offer such a rich curriculum as they have in the past.

Although the central administration claimed they helped East meet its needs by never "indicating how their extra staff are to be used," that was not the case. A new district approach allowed the outsiders' perceptions dictate East's course, as a district administrator explained.

> The future of East's objectives will be determined by principals of the other high schools in order to give them ownership so they will support East's dissemination efforts.

Since the success of those dissemination efforts weighed heavily on East's continued funding, the model school staff was starting to find itself in an ever "narrower box."

One problem in the recent past was that the other high schools of the district had not accepted East's program exportation endeavors. The paradox of the situation was described by a frustrated teacher who said, "The other high schools are resisting our material, but we are charged with implementing our ideas or we lose the money."

If East convinced the others to use the material, the money it would take to produce the material became an issue. Not only was materials production an issue with the other schools, but there was also a feeling by other school staffs that East succeeds "because of the increased staff allotment."

Probably the greatest resistance to East by outsiders stemmed from their perception that East was an elitist school. Described by district office administrators as "a lighthouse school" and "a showplace for visitors to the district," East had always been looked at with envy by the other schools because of its special status.

This had been the basis for some of the resistance it has met within the district, as described by a district administrator.

> East is different from the traditional schools of our district. The other schools don't want to accept East's concepts because if is out of step with the other high schools and is not seen as marching to the same beat. This stems from how East became a model school and created a feeling of an elitist school. Other principals view East's program with suspicion. Johnson always said East changed more and had more influence outside of the district than within it.

Because of the elitist perceptions shared by other principals, the district had given those principals direct input into East's dissemination efforts while cutting East's budget from earlier years. Another district administrator explained the sensitive and highly political situation that had so influenced East's current program as follows:

> One of the concerns is that we do not want to develop an elite school in the district and give more than its fair share of the dollars. We overcame that problem by showing how all high schools will benefit from the model school program through dissemination activities.

This strategy had been fairly successful. More staffs within the district were looking at East "more favorably because of identification with the school and its dissemination efforts." Another district administrator noted that perceptual change by other schools occurred recently when "Miller was promoted to principal like at regular schools rather than bringing in some nationally known hotshot." The combination of these factors had changed outsiders' perceptions of East, but had also distinctly changed East in the process.

Thus, staffs of schools that receive additional resources for special programs are affected by the self-perceptions of their programs as well as those held by others outside the school. The self-image a school community has of its school can definitely change the behavior, programs, and focus of a school. Similarly, the image a school portrays to others can create perceptions by outsiders that may have significant impact on the school's programs. The end result of this mixture of perceptions can be a school program quite different from the original plan.

Administrative Behavior

Administrative behavior consists of the actions exhibited by the administrator while carrying out his or her duties. Administrative behavior at East High School is described in one proposition. The proposition focuses on the principal's personality and leadership.

Proposition Nine: Leadership

The principal's personality and leadership style, which set the tone and climate of the school, should be appropriate to the school's evolving needs.

Regardless of the administrative organizational structure or processes, a school can feel the most influence from the behavior of its administration. The principal's personality and leaderhip style significantly affect the school's atmosphere and climate, thus altering long-standing structures and processes. The potential impact of an individual principal's behavior, if recognized by the school community, can be beneficial when personality traits and style are matched to the current needs of the school. Schools, as all organizations in society, proceed through various stages in a change cycle. A school benefits from having a principal whose personality and leadership style are highly compatible with the school's present stage in its cycle. This means that different types of principals are necessary at different times in a school's growth and also points to the need for selected principals to grow and change as the school evolves to maintain the most appropriate leadership for the current needs of the school.

East High School's three principals--Johnson, Taylor, and Miller--had different personalities and leadership styles. They each had a different impact on the school. Mr. Johnson, the original principal of East High School, remained in that position for six and one-half years. There was no doubt that Johnson's impact on the school was great then and still existed. A veteran teacher pointed out, "Johnson set the tone for the school and his influence is still felt today." He cited the "lack of racial and ethnic tension and friction" at East as a clearcut example of Johnson's lasting impact. Other teachers attributed the close teacher-student relationship and atmosphere at East to Johnson's leadership.

Another area of Johnson's impact was in curriculum. He was described by many as "a brilliant educator with knowledge and inspirational abilities." His expertise in curriculum matters earned him a reputation in the district as "the guru of continuous progress." He was respected by everyone for his conceptual genius. The district administration was pleased with his innovative ideas for East High School. As one district administrator explained, "Johnson did a good job in designing and implementing the initial program and strategies." The East philosophy and continuous progress program could be attributed to Johnson's leadership ability.

Johnson's curriculum and conceptual genious, however, was in sharp contrast to his perceived lack of administrative and organizational abilities. Staff members complained, "He was a lot of talk but not enough action." Without the necessary structure to make his programmatic ideas succeed, East earned a reputation for "chaos personified" and "frustrated teachers." Balanced views of Johnson's strengths and weaknesses were given by two experienced teachers.

> I have never worked for a person who knew his job in curriculum like Johnson did. He knew how to inspire his staff curriculum-wise. As an administrator, he was lacking. You cannot have any continuous progress unless there is a climate for learning, and Johnson couldn't do what was administratively necessary to create that climate.

> I think Johnson was great for creating our philosophy, but as head of the school he ran into his own limitations. In a large group he was great,

> but he stymied concrete interaction with individual staff members. He tended to rant and rave over a whim, vacillate a lot, and just couldn't be predicted from day to day.

When Johnson left East in March for a new job, vice principal Miller served as acting principal until Mr. Taylor arrived as the new principal in the summer. During his one year as leader of East, Taylor left many staff members unsure of just what impact he really had. As one teacher observed,

> Taylor came in and said he wouldn't make any large changes until he knew what was going on. Then he was promoted to the district office so we never really saw any great impact from him.

This "wait-and-see" attitude irked many staff members who desired some strong leadership following Johnson's perceived lack of organizational skills and interest in the school during his last few years as principal. Taylor was criticized by teachers for his "inaction" and "maintenance attitude" which resulted in "no new programs at all in what's supposed to be an innovative school." Another veteran teacher was concerned that the school with many programs and little structure became a traditional school.

> Taylor wanted to please everyone so the school didn't grow--he just tightened everything up. There was no encouragement and effort to try new things. The school became run by the principal and team leaders rather than the faculty as a whole. The problem arose where the staff feeling of involvement was deferred for the need to have someone make a decision. Consequently, the school's unity and direction drifted.

Taylor was also criticized for "always going by the district policy handbook." New course requests not submitted by the district deadline were not accepted by Taylor, although previously Johnson had pushed them through the bureaucracy anyway. Field trips and activities, even some which had been previously approved by Johnson, were cancelled or changed by Taylor because of his position of not stepping outside of the policy guidelines, which the staff perceived as being "set for traditional schools." Such issues, coupled with his failure to be as involved in school activities as Johnson was, kept Taylor from getting the "trust" and "involvement" of the whole staff.

Other teachers saw Taylor as having had a very positive impact on the school by working "behind the scenes" with his "low key" personality. He was credited by many as having "great communication skills that could bring opposing points of view into compromise to solve a problem." In contrast to Johnson, Taylor worked best in small group meetings and avoided large group meetings and presentations. Used to discussing and deciding issues in faculty meetings, the staff became uncertain as to what the principal was doing, as a respondent noted.

> Taylor was very good on a personal basis. He helped me out individually, but he wasn't very good in a large group. Consequently, we didn't have faculty meetings with him like we used to have with Johnson. But he made the school run in his quiet way. He diminished and streamlined the organization. He cut out a lot of paperwork. He knew we were here to help kids and not for publicity.

The district administration felt that Taylor's ability to get along with people made him "easy to live with." Unlike Johnson's flamboyance, district administrators observed that Taylor "introduced changes so smoothly, some didn't even realize it." Above all, Taylor was praised by many for "not being concerned about building kingdoms, but only seeing to the needs of the school and kids." Although his tenure as principal was brief, and the staff still felt "betrayed" by his leaving, Taylor's impact on the school's organizational structure, communication networks, and model schools program was appreciated by some East staff.

> Taylor was the strongest force we have had in the school. He made changes, supported the teachers, and unified the staff. What he set as policy is what he did. Everyone was always fairly and equally treated. He believed in open access and good communications in the school. He gave the team leaders more control in school decisions and curriculum. All together, he helped this school more than most of us realize.

When the school year began without a replacement appointed for Mr. Taylor, the overwhelming majority of the East staff asked Mr. Miller to seek the principalship and sent a letter of endorsement to the board of education. The district administration perceived that the East staff desired "a man with stability who knew the process and students." Two veteran East staff members agreed:

> The staff has confidence in Miller and trusts him. They know he can maintain the school but nobody knows if he'll take it to new heights; but no one cares because the school needs some settling and continuity now.

> He will probably be more conservative than our past principals, but he is firm and fair with everyone. While he's aware of academic necessities, he won't have the curricular insights that Johnson did, but I don't think we need it. What we need now is a leader to manage and consolidate, and to create an atmosphere for learning.

Miller's personality and leadership style had affected the atmosphere of East. Described by the staff as "professional, open, and committed," Miller was also "an excellent role model for students" and "a concerned and humane listener" for everyone. The school was already more organized, with higher morale and a rejuvenated spirit caused by a new sense of direction. As the leader of the school community, Miller told teachers he felt his job "was to create the climate where professionals can do their job," and his personality was having a significant professional impact. The vice principal described Miller's leadership style as follows:

> He believes in leadership by example. There is nothing he has asked me to do that he doesn't demonstrate by doing it himself first. This is combined with his leadership with compassion. He deals with faculty problems, student problems, and my problems as a real, concerned and understanding human being.

The staff agreed that Miller's leadership style was perceived by the school community to be "one of committed professionalism, rationalism, openness, and honesty as characterized by his organizational skills, interpersonal relationships, and willingness to learn." Without doubt, this leadership was making a dramatic impact on East's climate and program. This impact was significant because the principal's personality and leadership style appeared to match the current needs of the school. The desire for a leader who would organize the school, assess its present status, and pursue agreed-on directions was indicative of the renewal stage of change the school had entered. Everyone was aware that another principal similar to Johnson was not in the best interests of the school during this phase of its evolution.

Not only had the three leaders left their impact on the school, but the turnover of principals had also affected East. One teacher described the leadership changes as "just like getting married and divorced three times in three years." It had "confused the kids" and affected the staff "by wavering their loyalties to principals." Parents had not seen any change "in terms of actual practice on the kids' education" because the staff had carried on in the classroom. But parents also realized, "It has been really tough on the teachers."

The administrative changes made life at East "hectic at times, and generally disruptive" according to the staff, but most concern revolved around the perception that the changes resulted in "no constant, steady direction for the school" with the programs suffering as a result. This "state of limbo for over two years" had detrimental effects on staff morale and left a staff feeling of resentment for "being used as a stepping stone" by Johnson and Taylor. In addition, the lack of leadership left teachers the decision as to what should be done in their classrooms, causing "a topsy-turvy program" that many felt was out of control. A strong commitment by the leadership was needed to pursue a cohesive philosophy which would bring the school together. A veteran teacher explained:

> The lack of clear direction is an outgrowth of the administrative upheaval over the past several years. The staff has learned to go on without the administration, but for morale to stay high and people to believe what they're doing is valued and valuable there must be leadership. Leadership must give clearcut guidelines and evaluate on the basis of those guidelines. Staff who don't fit in should be encouraged to transfer to another school. This school is obligated to keep moving forward and not stagnate, so East must have good leadership to give a needed kick in the pants or a pat on the back.

The school community believed that the principal's leadership behavior was vital to the school's continued excellence. The staff also saw the necessity of selecting a particular principal depending on the current stage of the school in its change cycle. For that reason, the East staff desired "a combination of the two prior principals--a good manager who has a visionary aspect." The first priority for East's principal was an understanding of "how a school needs to be organized and function properly"; curriculum leadership was a secondary concern of the staff. The district administration also believed, "An innovator needs to be followed by a maintenance leader." Innovators at East were brought in from the outside while an insider was promoted when a steadying influence was sought.

The extent of the impact of administrative behavior on a school was seen by examining the principal's influence on staff and students. One new teacher always thought of the principal "as a figurehead and not really a participant in the process." Observation of the changes within the staff resulting from leadership changes convinced the teacher, "The principal is a big part of the process, especially if he gets involved." An example of this was given by a veteran teacher:

> I saw a change immediately when Miller became principal. We are taking a look at some problems we have had from the beginning. We are looking at students leaving campus, students who continually cut class, and I think maybe that could change now. Kids and staff are paying attention to discipline. Kids are now being held accountable.

Administrative-staff relations can change dramatically depending on the principal's personality and leadership style, thus affecting the entire atmosphere of the school. East was credited with excellent administrative-staff relations because the principal was open to the staff. As a teacher related, "Anything a staff member has to say is treated as being important." Teachers reported that a response from the administration was always forthcoming, and "what you say really does make a difference in the final decision."

Students' reaction to stricter, but equitable, discipline illustrated how an administrator's personality affects the school. A teacher explained the rapport Miller had with students as follows:

> Miller is very open and caring. The kids know he is very concerned, sincere, and honest. He has been accepted and respected by the student body even though

> he was responsible for discipline because kids know they will be heard. He spends a lot of time parenting with kids. And even though he drives expensive antique cars to school, no one bothers them because they respect him for being honest and above board with them.

Another teacher contrasted Miller's relationship with students to former principals, citing Miller's personality as the reason for his beneficial impact on the school and students.

> Miller leads by example. He carries out the philosophy of the school by caring and checking up on people. Kids only knew the name of Johnson and a few recognized him in the halls, but they didn't know him as a person like they do Miller. Taylor was not big on communication except in small groups. Miller cares about all the students and not just the top ones.

Students confirmed that they didn't know Johnson, that Taylor made an effort to know students, but that everyone knew Miller because "he tries to help you" and "he doesn't favor anyone." The respect that students had for Miller and how he had changed the school climate, may best be illustrated by the following incident. Some East students set off firecrackers during a varsity basketball game in the gym. Miller delivered a ten-minute speech the next morning about the incident, relaying his obvious concern and anger that someone was so inconsiderate of the safety of others and the image of the school. He vowed to apprehend the students and never let such an incident happen again as long as he was principal. The vice principal described himself as "shocked and surprised" when the guilty students turned themselves in after the speech because they felt badly about jeopardizing other spectators' safety. As the vice principal said, "That demonstrates how effective Miller's speech was, and the relationship he has with students." The principal's personality and leadership style can make a significant difference in student attitudes and administration-staff-student relationships.

The principal's personality and leadership style sets the tone and climate of the school. The differing impact the three principals had on the school program, staff, and students is evidence of how significant administrative behavior can be in setting the atmosphere of a school.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF RELATED THEORY AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter contains a review of the literature of related formal theories and analysis of the data within the formal theoretical framework. The theories presented were deemed relevant after the data were collected and analyzed. Each theory will be reviewed and then applied to the data. The theories utilized were axiomatic organizational theory, social systems theory, organizational climate, leadership theory, decision theory, change theory, and motivation theory. The data will also be analyzed using administrative processes. Grounded modifications of formal theory will be presented and analyzed. Finally, the interaction of theory in grounded practice is explained.

Axiomatic Organizational Theory

An axiomatic theory of organizations was proposed by Hage (1965) to order structural and functional relationships within an organization. Based on the work of Barnard (1946), Thompson (1961), and Weber (1947), Hage's original axiomatic theory was refined in subsequent years (Hage & Aiken, 1970). Organizations were identified by eight variables--four "means" and four "ends."

The four "means" variables relate to an organization's structure. Complexity is the degree to which people in the organization have specialized knowledge and training. Centralization refers to the level and extent of power within the organization's decision-making process. Formalization of the organization relates to the codification of rules and regulations by which members of the organization are directed. Stratification is the distribution of formal and informal rewards and the resulting status and prestige of those given preferential treatment.

The four "means" are directly tied to the four "ends." The outcome variables of adaptiveness (flexibility), job satisfaction (morale), production (effectiveness), and efficiency (cost) are viewed as dependent on the relative extent to which the structural variables are found in an organization. The levels of an organization's complexity, centralization, formalization, and stratification therefore determine the levels of an organization's adaptiveness, job satisfaction, production, and efficiency.

Hage included seven propositions in his axiomatic theory that illustrate how organizational "means" and "ends" are balanced. The seven axioms are as follows:

1. The higher the centralization, the higher the production.
2. The higher the formalization, the higher the efficiency.
3. The higher the centralization, the higher the formalization.

4. The higher the stratification, the lower the job satisfaction.

5. The higher the stratification, the higher the production.

6. The higher the stratification, the lower the adaptiveness.

7. The higher the complexity, the lower the centralization.

Two extreme organizational types were identified through the eight variables. The organic organization places an emphasis on adaptiveness, and the mechanistic organization emphasizes production. The organic organization is identified by its high complexity, low centralization, low formalization, low stratification, high adaptiveness, high job satisfaction, low production, and low efficiency. Conversely, the mechanistic organization is identified by its low complexity, high centralization, high formalization, high stratification, low adaptiveness, low job satisfaction, high production, and high efficiency.

Hage's axiomatic theory emerged as an appropriate framework for analyzing East High School's organizational structure within the structure of the Maryville School District. First, the school district's organizational structure will be analyzed and then the school itself will be analyzed using Hage's theory. A comparison of the two organizational structures will then be made.

The Maryville School District, in general, showed many of the characteristics of a mechanistic organization. The major deviation from Hage's extreme type was the high degree of complexity found within the school district organization. The central office was staffed by almost 50 specialists, all of them trained in and responsible for a particular aspect of the school district operation. The extensive list of supervisors, coordinators, and directors illustrated the extent to which the district was a complex organization.

Similar to Hage's mechanistic organization, the district demonstrated a high degree of centralization, formalization, and stratification. The district's centralization was described in Proposition Two where the budgetary process, curricular decisions, staffing needs, and maintenance services were given as examples of the control exerted over individual schools by the district office. The fact that most of the significant decisions were made by specified district personnel in the hierarchy of the central office illustrated the high degree of centralization in the school district organization.

The thick handbooks of rules, regulations, and guidelines of the school district were clear indicators of the high degree of formalization within the organization. "Going by the book" was expected of everyone within the district, and conflict between East and the central office often revolved around this very issue. Open lunch periods, athletic eligibility, and field trips were examples of the high degree of formalization within the district organization.

The district's high degree of stratification was evident as those within the organization strived for promotion. Greater prestige and social status, as well as some preferential treatment, were perceived by those inside and outside of the district organization as characteristics of the district organization. The interactive patterns, and clear delineations between and among district and school staff, also indicated the high degree to which stratification was a factor in the school district.

Hage's outcome variables for a mechanistic organization were more difficult to apply to the Maryville School District because the focus of the research did not directly deal with these aspects. Nevertheless, a preliminary analysis pointed to some differences with Hage's mechanistic model of low adaptiveness, low job satisfaction, high production, and high efficiency.

Although the district prided itself on innovation and change, the real degree of adaptiveness and flexibility by the district organization appeared to be low as exemplified by its current retrenchment of the model school program. Job satisfaction and morale in the district organization was not measured, but staff turnover was slight which may indicate satisfaction (or perhaps a tight job market). The district emphasis on production was high, and the bureaucracy seemed to be maintaining high production. The efficiency of the district in terms of cost per pupil was high; that is, resources were utilized and costs were kept low because of an efficient organization on the district level. On the other hand, viewed as the quantity and quality of work completed, the district organization seemed to have some of the low efficiency characteristic of a large, bureaucratic organization.

Compared to Hage's organizational types, the Maryville School District closely resembled a mechanistic organization with its high centralization, high formalization, high stratification, low adaptiveness, high production, and high efficiency. In contrast to Hage's mechanistic organization, the school district exhibited high complexity. No reliable measure of job satisfaction was obtained, although staff morale was not observed to be exceptionally high.

East High School exhibited many of the characteristics of Hage's organic organization. East's complexity, using Hage's definition of specialization and training, was technically high (as are most secondary schools). The staff, however, perceived a state of low organizational complexity and acted according to that perception. Unlike some highly departmentalized secondary schools with many specialized staff operating within narrow areas of training, East was quasi-departmentalized and allowed its staff members wide parameters within which to operate. The low degree of complexity emanated, in part, from the teacher advisor system which not only required all staff members to acquire the same knowledge and apply the same skills, but also significantly increased the communication among members of the staff, thus breaking down departmental barriers. In addition, the low level of inservice and staff development activities helped maintain a low level of organizational complexity.

The low degree of centralization at East resulted largely from the leadership styles of the school's three principals. The school's decision-making process was decentralized under Johnson, departmentalized under Taylor, and decentralized again under Miller. Members of all segments of the school community--administrators, staff, students, parents--had input into the decision-making process. Furthermore, the content areas in which the input was desired were broad programmatic aspects of the school's program rather than more confined areas of decision making. The increased decisional involvement of East's school community was indicative of low organizational centralization.

Formalization within East was also quite low. Rules and regulations were few in number, leaving ample discretion to individual staff members and departments in performing their responsibilities. Staff members did not feel restricted by rules and regulations of the school, but did feel hampered by the district's rules. The low formalization enhanced East's innovative efforts by encouraging creative and unique schooling and bolstered East's staff morale.

The low degree of stratification in East's organization is reflected in the perception of equality among the staff. Rewards were distributed equitably so that differentials in status and prestige were not significant factors, nor was there any perception that some staff members received preferential treatment. Again, this could be attributed to good administrative leadership where favoritism and informal rewards were absent.

The outcome variables of the East organization, while not as measurable as the input variables, also indicated an organic organization. The school's staff certainly displayed a high degree of adaptiveness, not only to program changes but organizational changes as well. Adjusting to five administrations within three years, the staff showed extreme flexibility. The changes mandated in the model schools program, in addition to everyday changes in a continuous progress school, demanded a high degree of adaptiveness.

Although staff turnover was high and wages were perceived by the staff to be lower than acceptable, staff job satisfaction seemed generally high. The organic nature of the school organization was an important factor in the satisfaction, while the mechanistic nature of the district organization was somewhat responsible for staff dissatisfaction. For example, the school's low formalization and centralization permitted staff members freedom to choose their own methods and to have input into decisions; the district's high formalization and centralization made teachers feel limited by policies over which they had little control. East staff members seemed quite satisfied with the school and somewhat dissatisfied with the district.

Production, when measured by graduates, postsecondary students, and dropout rates, was very high at East. Unlike the low production of Hage's organic organization, East's organization was highly productive. The low dropout rate and high rate of college-bound graduates in East's average socioeconomic mix of students provide evidence that the organization's production was high.

Consistent with organic organizations, however, East's efficiency was somewhat low. The school maintained a low student-teacher ratio because of the model school program funds and therefore had a high cost per unit (student). Idle resources were not a problem, but the extra staff and paraprofessional positions needed to operate the school made it inefficient from Hage's cost analysis viewpoint.

From the quantity and quality of work viewpoint, East's efficiency was also low. The large amount of paperwork associated with the continuous progress curriculum and the teacher advisor system was inefficient. Segment grades were recorded as many as five times from the subject teacher's grade book to the school's permanent records. Slips of paper and printed forms in triplicate abounded in the school's record-keeping system. Scheduling, advising, communicating, and teaching were all somewhat inefficient.

This factor was undermining the daily operation of the school and the morale of the staff.

Compared to Hage's organizational types, East High School closely resembled the organic organization with its low centralization, low formalization, low stratification, high adaptiveness, high job satisfaction, and low efficiency. Although the school was complex by Hage's definition, the school's staff did not perceive the organization as being very complex, especially compared to other secondary schools. Contrary to Hage's organic organization, East had high production.

Conflicts resulting from an organic organization operating within a larger mechanistic organization were evident in Maryville. As a very personalistic, decentralized organization, East High School was held accountable to a somewhat bureaucratic, centralized district. As a model school, East was funded to be innovative, but was mandated by the district to accomplish centrally established goals and objectives. The school staff was directed by the central organization which emphasized formalization, production, and efficiency. The East administrators were often faced with the problems of operating an organic division within the constraints of a larger mechanistic organization.

The school's educational program was affected by the conflict between the school and district organizations. Staff morale was somewhat lowered by this conflict. Innovation in the school and classroom was allowed if it was "by the book" and within the centrally mandated budget. Field trips, materials, equipment, and activities were all available to the staff to be used creatively as a model school, but within district guidelines set for all schools. Some staff members grew tired of the struggle and either left or reduced their creative efforts. The school administration was caught between staff desires and district policies.

While Hage's axiomatic organizational theory served as a useful framework for analyzing the East school and the Maryville district organizations, the data were not entirely supportive of Hage's extreme organizational types. In addition to the discrepancies in Hage's extreme organizational types, three of the seven axioms were also at variance with the data. These anomalies in Hage's theory will be analyzed further when grounded theory is discussed later in this chapter.

Social Systems Theory

Schools may be viewed as dynamic, interactive social systems. There are two basic dimensions of a school's social system--nomothetic and idiographic. Getzels and Guba (1957) defined the nomothetic dimension as the normative or sociological aspect of an organization which included institutional roles and role expectations. The idiographic dimension, also referred to as the personal or psychological aspect of an organization, included the individual personalities with their unique need-dispositions. The resulting social behavior within a social system such as a school is derived from the interaction of the two dimensions. Both the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions are influenced by the prevailing cultural milieu in which they are embedded, thus bringing the dominant ethos and values into play. Schematically, the model of a school as a social system is shown in Figure 4.1.

Social systems theory was applied to educational organization and administration by Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell (1968). Administrative behavior was viewed as the interaction between the role expectations for the position and the personal need-dispositions of the individual in the position. Citizens, staff, students, and fellow administrators all hold expectations for defined institutional roles within the school (e.g., principal, teacher, student). Each member of the school's social system (e.g., principal, teacher, student) has individual need-dispositions which desire fulfillment. Satisfaction is a function of how well the individual need-dispositions match the institutional role expectations.

The matter is further complicated by the distinct probability that many different role expectations are held for the same position by different groups within the organization. Thus, while an administrator has one set of need-dispositions, he or she may be required to cope with many different role expectations set by

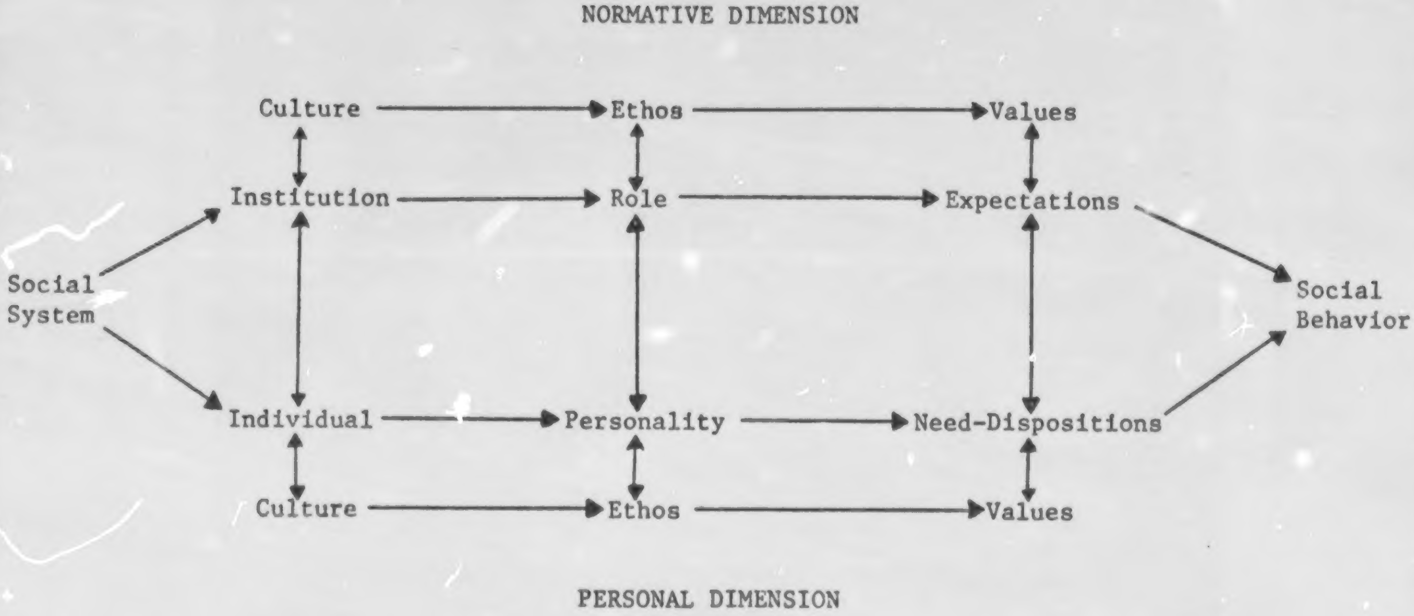

Figure 4.1. Model of the Major Dimensions of Behavior in a Social System.

Adapted from: Getzels, J. W., Lipham, J. M., & Campbell, R. F. Educational administration as a social process. New York: Harper and Row, 1968, p. 105.

parents, students, staff, fellow administrators, and superordinates. The various demands placed on an individual may create a situation where role conflict is a serious problem. This study attempted to uncover and understand any such role conflicts within the school's social system.

Social systems theory was used in this study to analyze the school as a social system and the role expectations held for two positions at East High School--the principal and the teacher advisor. The role expectations that the school community held for its principal were of interest because of the administrative focus of the study. The teacher advisor, as a new position in secondary schools and a useful vehicle for administrative processes, was also analyzed in terms of role expectations. The behavior of the school's staff, as an important visible aspect of the school as a social system, was also analyzed in terms of role power and influence.

Proud of their model school, the school community of East High School held one main expectation for the principal--instructional leadership. Students, staff, parents, and district personnel all perceived the principalship of East as somewhat different than administrative positions in other high schools because of the school's model school status. As the leader of a model school, the principal was expected to exert energy and influence in the area of curriculum and instruction. The maintenance of the innovative climate and continuous search for a better educational program were the major priorities for a principal as perceived by the school community.

Mr. Johnson had satisfied this expectation, although some believed that some of his curriculum ideas were not practical. Some were not satisfied with Taylor's leadership in curriculum. A major question raised about Miller was his instructional leadership. The success of any principal within East's social system seemed to rest on the expectation that a principal should provide strong instructional leadership.

Other role expectations for the principal, although secondary to instructional leadership, were also held by the whole community. There was a strong desire for the administrator to organize and operate the school effectively and consistently. The school community felt Johnson was less than adequate in the management area, Taylor was adequate, and Miller was excellent. There was growing concern among staff members, however, that school administration might surpass instructional leadership as the top expectation held for the East principalship.

Attendance at extracurricular activities and acquaintance with the school's students were also expectations held for the principal, especially by parents. Although Johnson was heavily involved in student activities, most students did not know him. Taylor tried to meet student leaders but was not active in school activities. Miller knew most of the students and attended most of the school's activities. Miller was perceived as being very adept at filling the student activities role expectation.

Another role expectation for the principal was accessibility and open-mindedness. All East principals maintained an open door policy to fulfill this expectation. Yet, individual need-dispositions resulted in Johnson's use of large group meetings for communication and interaction, whereas Taylor relied on small group meetings. Miller operated adroitly in both large and small group meetings, thus satisfying the expectations of nearly everyone.

Finally, the expectation that the principal be consistent and supportive was held by many in the school community, especially members of the staff. Whereas Johnson was perceived to be generally supportive and Taylor was perceived to be consistent, Miller was seen as having both qualities. As a rational professional, he was viewed as fair and consistent. In addition, Miller was very supportive of students and staff, resolved conflicts, and protected the staff from perceived district intrusion. Conflict between district expectations of support and consistency for the central office and the school staff's expectations of support had not yet surfaced in Miller's new administration.

In sum, the East principals had to operate within definite role expectations for their positions held by members of the school community. The unanimity of expectations for the principal led to a situation where inter-reference group conflict was not a problem. How well each principal met the agreed-on expectations was a matter of congruence between individual need-dispositions and the role expectations of others. This role-personality relationship was the only significant conflict facing the East principal.

The role of teacher advisor, as explained in Proposition Four, was an important vehicle for the administrative communication processes. Teacher advisors, fulfilling a new role in secondary schools, were faced with more role conflict than the principal. Inter-role conflict, inter- and intra-reference group conflict, and role-personality conflict confronted teacher advisors.

Most teachers served as both teachers and advisors. Since the role expectations for teacher advisors sometimes conflicted with the role expectations for teachers, the problem of inter-role conflict surfaced for some teacher advisors. An example of this conflict at East was the expectation that teachers exercise firm classroom management techniques and, at the same time, serve as personable advisors to some of the same students. Adjustment to the dual role of teacher and advisor was difficult for some staff members.

Because students, teachers, guidance counselors, and administrators all had differing expectations for the teacher advisor role, teacher advisors were daily faced with inter- and intra-reference group conflict. Whereas different students in an advisor group perceived their teacher advisor in varying roles, teacher advisors were never really certain of which role expectations to fulfill. As a result, the effectiveness of the teacher advisor program was not as high as it could have been.

Although serving as a teacher advisor was supposedly voluntary, teachers were expected (and hired) to serve as teacher advisors. Role-personality conflicts arose when teachers did not want to be teacher advisors but were "forced" into the position. The incongruence between role expectations and need-dispositions created serious role-personality conflicts and ineffective teacher advisors for some students.

The teacher advisor position, as a new role in secondary schools, lacked the clear role definition that most traditional school roles have gained over the years. The result was a teacher advisor system which could have been more effective if inter-role, inter- and intra-reference group, and role-personality conflicts were reduced. The effectiveness of the teacher advisor in secondary schools, and its future use as an administrative communication process, depends on the satisfactory resolution of these conflicts.

The observed behavior of members of the school staff in particular, and the school community in general, was analyzed in terms of social systems theory. According to this theory, social behavior is a result of the dynamic interplay of personal needs and role expectations within the dominant cultural value system.

Although this theory was sufficient for some situations, there were circumstances where the observed behavior was more accurately described as political than as idiographic or nomothetic. Thus, departmental chairpersons, veteran teachers, and coalition leaders were able to control and affect behaviors and decisions because of power and influence stemming from their authority and status in the social system. These political dimensions of the social systems theory will be discussed further as grounded theory.

Organizational Climate

A school's organizational climate is the product of the school community's shared values, social beliefs, and social standards as students, staff, and administrators work together to balance the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions of the school's social system (Hoy & Miskel, 1978). Shared values refer to the agreed-on beliefs concerning what is culturally desirable. Social beliefs concern basic ideas about the nature of people and society. Social standards, based on these shared values and social beliefs, are the norms of appropriate behavior. When analyzed together, the shared values, social beliefs, and social standards portray the personality of an organization. The school, as a social system mediating institutional demands and personal desires within the prevailing cultural values, has measurable internal characteristics that comprise the organizational climate.

The most widely recognized research in organizational climate was done by Halpin and Crofts (1962). Their 64-item organizational climate description questionnaire (OCDQ) measured four characteristics of faculty behavior and four characteristics of principal behavior. Six basic school climates were identified along a continuum from open to closed: open, autonomous, controlled, familiar, paternal, closed.

The four characteristics related to faculty behavior include hindrance, intimacy, disengagement, and esprit. Hindrance refers to the staff feeling that the principal burdens them with routine and irrelevant busywork. Intimacy refers to congenial relationships among the staff. Disengagement refers to the tendency of uncommitted staff to just go through the motions. Esprit refers to staff morale emanating from task accomplishment and needs satisfaction.

The four characteristics related to principal behavior include production emphasis, aloofness, consideration, and thrust. Production emphasis refers to highly directive and close supervisory principal behavior. Aloofness refers to formal and impersonal principal behavior. Consideration refers to warm, congenial principal behavior. Thrust refers to dynamic principal behavior when changing the organization is attempted through personal modeling principal behavior.

The two extreme climates--open and closed--are exact opposites. An open climate exhibits low hindrance, average intimacy, low disengagement, high esprit, low production emphasis, low aloofness, high consideration, and high thrust. The three salient characteristics of open and closed climates are disengagement, esprit, and thrust. The behavior of both the principal and staff in a school with an open climate is authentic; a school with a closed climate is characterized by inauthenticity.

East High School's organizational climate emerged as a dominant strength of the school. The open climate was variously attributed by the school community to the school's design, size, staff, teacher advisor program, and principal behavior. Above all, there was considerable agreement that the school had an open climate.

The faculty did not feel hindered by school management requirements. The staff's intimacy was warm, but not overly gregarious. The teachers were committed to their jobs (although some suggested they were not as committed as in prior years) so that disengagement was low. Staff morale and esprit were high because teachers had a high sense of task accomplishment and social needs satisfaction. The principal was sensitive to faculty feedback and attempted to create an atmosphere where teachers could work as self-directed professionals rather than act in a highly directive and supervisory manner. The principal exhibited openness and concern, accounting for low aloofness and high consideration. Finally, Mr. Miller was preparing to change the school's direction and was already succeeding by virtue of his role modeling. In sum, the East faculty and principal were genuine in their behavior, worked well together, and were committed to a free-flowing balance of task achievement and needs satisfaction.

As stated in Propositions One, Four, and Nine, the school's open climate was created by the school's design, size, teacher advisor program, and principal behavior. The school building's open, round design with its teacher planning area, open classroom pods, and second floor balcony corridor enhanced efforts by the school community to maintain an open climate. The school's enrollment of 900 students was small enough to encourage a closeknit, neighborhood school atmosphere usually associated with elementary schools. The teacher advisor program restructured traditional communication and interactive patterns among students, staff, administrators, and parents into a personalized school based on mutual respect among human beings. The principal, through his attitude and behavior, set the tone of the school and made it a comfortable place for all members of the diverse school community to work and grow together.

Halpin and Croft's OCDQ and climate analysis has been criticized as being inappropriate for large, urban, or secondary schools (Carver & Sergiovanni, 1969). Yet, as a secondary school, East's organizational climate could be measured using the eight OCDQ cluster characteristics and the prototypic school climate continuum. In addition, this information was valuable in trying to understand the dynamic interaction between the dimensions of the school's social system.

Leadership Theory

Recent approaches to the study of educational leadership have focused on the observed behavior of the leader-in-situation. The analysis of administrative behavior is based on the view that a leader's behavior is the result of the interplay between personal characteristics and the situation at hand. The definition of leadership, as well as the locus, frequency, potency, scope, and style of leadership, are all issues that must be addressed in any study of leadership.

Educational leadership has been defined as "that behavior of an individual which initiates changes in goals, objectives, configurations, procedures, inputs, processes, and ultimately the output of a social system" (Lipham, 1973, p. 6). The locus for leadership relates to the social system in which leadership occurs. The frequency of leadership is measured by how often a leader engages in leadership behavior. Potency of leadership is the degree to which the leader has had an impact. Scope of leadership refers to the breadth and depth of the leadership role. Leadership style has been variously described with useful conceptualizations put forth by Halpin and Winer (1957), Bowers and Seashore (1966), and House and Mitchell (1974).

Halpin and Winer (1957) viewed leader behavior as consisting of two dimensions--initiating structure and consideration. The two dimensions were defined as follows (Halpin, 1957, p. 4):

1. Initiating structure--behavior which delineates the relationship between the leader and members of the work group, and endeavors to establish well defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure.
2. Consideration--behavior which indicates friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the staff.

Bowers and Seashore (1966) viewed leader behavior as consisting of four dimensions--goal emphasis, work facilitation, support, and interaction facilitation. Two of these dimensions, goal emphasis and work facilitation, can be viewed as related to initiating structure; the other two dimensions, support and interaction facilitation, can be viewed as related to consideration. The four dimensions of leadership defined by Bowers and Seashore were:

1. Goal emphasis--behavior which stimulates enthusiasm for meeting the group's goals or achieving excellent performance.
2. Work facilitation--behavior which helps goal attainment by scheduling, planning, and coordinating.

3. Support--behavior which enhances someone else's feelings of personal worth and importance.
4. Interaction facilitation--behavior which encourages members of the group to develop close, mutually satisfying relationships.

House and Mitchell (1974) viewed leader behavior as consisting of four dimensions--directive, achievement-oriented, supportive, and participative. Directive and achievement-oriented leadership, sometimes combined into one dimension referred to as instrumental leadership (House, 1970), are related to Halpin and Winer's initiating structure. Supportive and participative leadership are related to Halpin and Winer's consideration dimension. The four dimensions defined by House and Mitchell were:

1. Directive--behavior which lets subordinates know what is expected of them and schedules work to be done following standard rules and regulations.
2. Achievement-oriented--behavior which sets challenging goals and expects subordinates to perform at their highest level.
3. Supportive--behavior which indicates friendship and warmth toward the work group by the leader.
4. Participative--behavior which allows subordinates to influence decisions by asking for suggestions and including subordinates in the decision-making process.

Previous studies have utilized one or more of the preceding descriptive classifications (Goodridge, 1975; Gramenz, 1974; Kawleski, 1977; Mendenhall, 1977; Moyle, 1977; Smith, 1972; Watkins, 1978). Of particular interest was Neiner's (1978) study in which he concluded that different styles of leadership may be necessary at different stages of the change process.

Lipham and Hoeh (1974) developed a taxonomy of leadership stages that can be utilized for relating leadership to change. The four leadership stages were defined as follows (p. 184):

1. Attempted leadership--acts that include expression of an intention to initiate a new structure for dealing with a problematic state of a social system.
2. Accepted leadership--acts that are mutually acknowledged as a tentative solution to a problematic state of a social system.
3. Implemented leadership--acts that have initiated a new structure in a social system.
4. Effective leadership--acts that have initiated a new structure and have met the expectations for resolving a problematic state of a social system.

As described in Proposition Nine, East High School has had three different principals in the past three years. Each principal displayed different leader behavior depending on individual personality and situational differences. All three leaders demonstrated leadership behavior by changing the output of the school's social system. In terms of Halpin and Winer's two dimensions, initiating structure and consideration, leadership at East has vacillated between the two variables. Generally, Johnson was perceived as being high in consideration while Taylor was perceived as high in initiating structure; however, both principals displayed leader behavior of both dimensions to some extent. The current principal, Mr. Miller, was perceived as being high in both dimensions, thus accounting for his perceived organizational talents and humane personality.

Bowers and Seashore's approach offered a discriminating view of the two basic leadership dimensions. Miller's high rating for initiating structure, when analyzed as goal emphasis and work facilitation, illustrated specific leadership behaviors. The principal emphasized the school's ultimate objectives and facilitated the activities necessary for goal attainment. Likewise, the principal's supportive comments boosted staff morale and encouraged increased staff interaction, thus demonstrating a high consideration dimension.

House and Mitchell's path-goal theory of leadership was also evident at East High School. Different subordinates and situations required different leadership strategies to achieve the principal's goals. Directive leadership was used with subordinates engaged in ambiguous tasks such as assigning administrative team responsibilities. Achievement-oriented leadership was displayed with teacher observations/evaluations where the objective was to motivate staff members to strive for higher performance levels and have confidence in the ability to meet the new goals. Together, these two leadership styles were viewed as the initiating structure dimension.

Consideration behavior was demonstrated through supportive leadership for subordinates working on stressful, frustrating tasks such as controlling student behavior in the halls and cafeteria. Participative leadership displayed during faculty advisory council meetings was used to promote staff self-confidence and ownership of school goals.

The staff perceptions of the three East principals with regard to their leadership style and behavior, together with Miller's utilization of four different styles depending on the context, confirmed Neiner's (1978) finding that different leadership styles were necessary at different stages of the school's change process. Furthermore, different leadership styles were necessary for effective leadership in the numerous different situations that administrators faced daily.

Further analysis of leadership styles and stages, and the relationship between leadership, change, and decision making, will be made at the end of this chapter in relation to grounded practice.

Decision Theory

Decision making has been defined as a process wherein "awareness of a problematic state of a system, influenced by information and values, is reduced to competing alternatives, among which a choice is made, based upon estimated outcome states of the system" (Lipham & Hoeh, 1974, p. 155). This definition was used as the basis of current theories that view decision making as a rational process containing three dimensions--decision content, decision stages, and decision involvement. Decision content refers to the "what" of decisions; decision stages refer to the "how" of decisions; and decision involvement refers to the "who" of decisions. Schematically, the comprehensive model of the basic dimensions of the decision-making process is shown in Figure 4.2.

Decision content categorizes what the decision is about into six administrative function areas. These six areas are curriculum and instruction, staff personnel, student personnel, finance and business management, school plant services, and home-school-community relations. It should be noted that a decision may fall across several of these functions and have further affects on the remaining areas.

Six decision stages have been identified in a rational decision-making process (Lipham & Daresh, 1980):

1. Identifying the nature of the problem
2. Clarifying and defining the problem

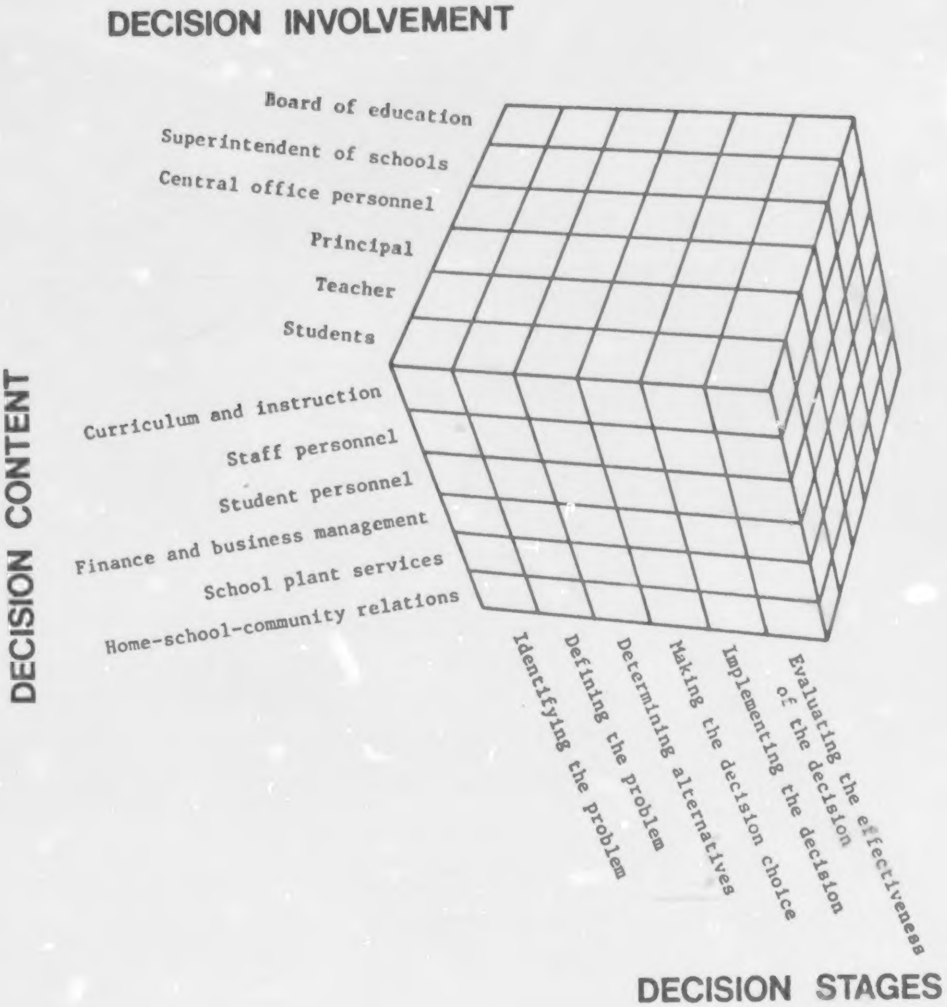

Figure 4.2. Basic Dimensions of the Decision-Making Process.

Adapted from: Lipham, J. M., Improving the decision-making skills of the principal. In J. A. Culbertson, C. Henson, & R. Morrison (Eds.), Performance objectives for school principals. Berkeley, California: McCutchan, 1974, p. 106.

3. Formulating and weighing alternatives
4. Making the decision choice
5. Implementing the decision solution
6. Evaluating the effectiveness of the decision

This process, when looked at as a progression of stages through time, is shown in Figure 4.3. The definition of the problem, the formulation and weighing of decision alternatives, the actual decision choice, the implementation of the decision, and the evaluation of the effectiveness of the outcomes of the decision are all influenced by the amount, form, and flow of information; the societal, organizational, and individual values; and feedback during the process.

Decision involvement relates to who participates in making a decision, how often they participate, and the level of their participation. Although Figure 4.2 shows only the most likely intraorganizational groups and individuals who can participate in a decision, there are also extraorganizational groups and individuals who may become involved. That is, in addition to the board of education, the school superintendent, central office personnel, the principal, teachers, and students, some parents, citizens in the community, state and federal governmental agencies, departments, officials, and private educational groups may also seek involvement in decisions.

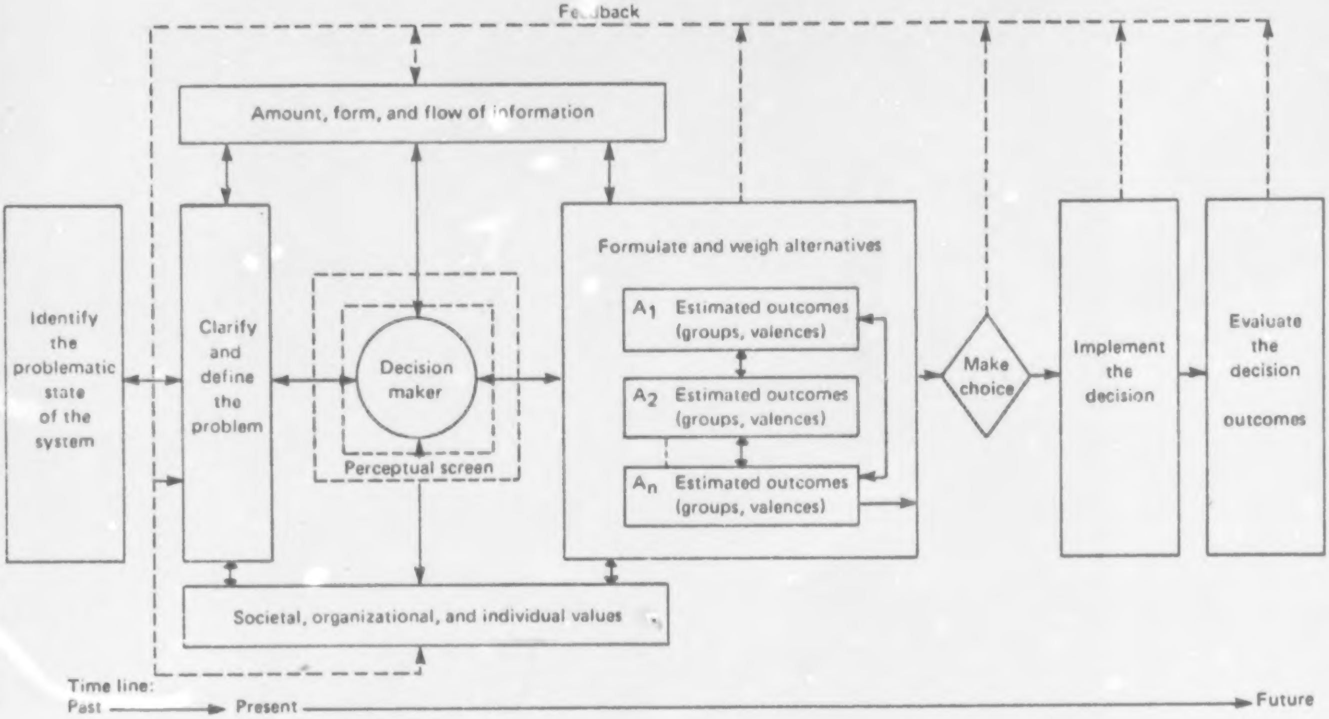
Feedback
Amount, form, and flow of information
Identify the problematic state of the system
Clarify and define the problem
Decision maker
Perceptual screen
Formulate and weigh alternatives
A1 Estimated outcomes (groups, valences)
A2 Estimated outcomes (groups, valences)
An Estimated outcomes (groups, valences)
Make choice
Implement the decision
Evaluate the decision outcomes
Societal, organizational, and individual values
Time line:
Past
Present
Future

Figure 4.3. Stages in the Decision-Making Process.

Source: Lipham, J. M., & Daresh, J. C. Administrative and staff relationships in education: Research and practice in IGE schools. Madison: Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Individualized Schooling Monograph Series, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1980.

The level or extent of involvement is the degree of participation in decision making. This extent of involvement is often measured on a five-point scale from high to low:

5. Make the decision.
4. Suggest specific alternatives.
3. Help formulate alternatives.
2. Provide information about the decision.
1. No involvement in the decision.

Taken together, the three aspects of decision involvement have been used to measure three decisional conditions. Excessive involvement leads to "decision saturation." Infrequent involvement leads to "decision deprivation" when a higher level of involvement is desired. A state of "decision equilibrium" is attained when a proper balance is made between actual and desired involvement (Alutto & Belasco, 1972; Bridges, 1967).

The concept of involvement in a participative decision-making process was refined by Bridges (1967) and later by Hoy and Miskel (1978). Bridges identified two variables on which teachers desired involvement--interest and expertise. Interest depended on whether an individual felt he or she had a personal stake in the decision. Expertise related to knowledge and understanding of the issue at hand. Bridges postulated that a decisional issue which was a matter of personal interest or expertise would be outside an individual's zone of acceptance, thus creating a desire for involvement.

Hoy and Miskel used the two dimensions developed by Bridges as a basis for their model of involvement in a participative decision-making process. The extent of involvement in the decision process is determined by the test of relevance and the test of expertise. Individuals are included in the decision-making process at various stages depending on their interest and expertise. This model is illustrated in Figure 4.4.

As described in Proposition Six, the decision-making process at East High School had changed with each principal. Throughout the changes, however, the East staff has maintained its interest and involvement in decision making for the school. Although the current principal expressed a desire for a new structure to include everyone in the school community, students, parents, paraprofessionals, and clerical staff had not been included in the formal decision-making process.

Staff involvement in schoolwide decision making depended heavily on informal influence on an issue-by-issue basis. This mode of decision involvement was successful because the small staff size and open school climate allowed for daily informal interaction among the teachers and administrators. The political implications of influence and power in these situations are discussed later under grounded theory.

Formal staff involvement centered around the faculty advisory council. Individuals with a personal interest or degree

PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING: THE ZONE OF ACCEPTANCE

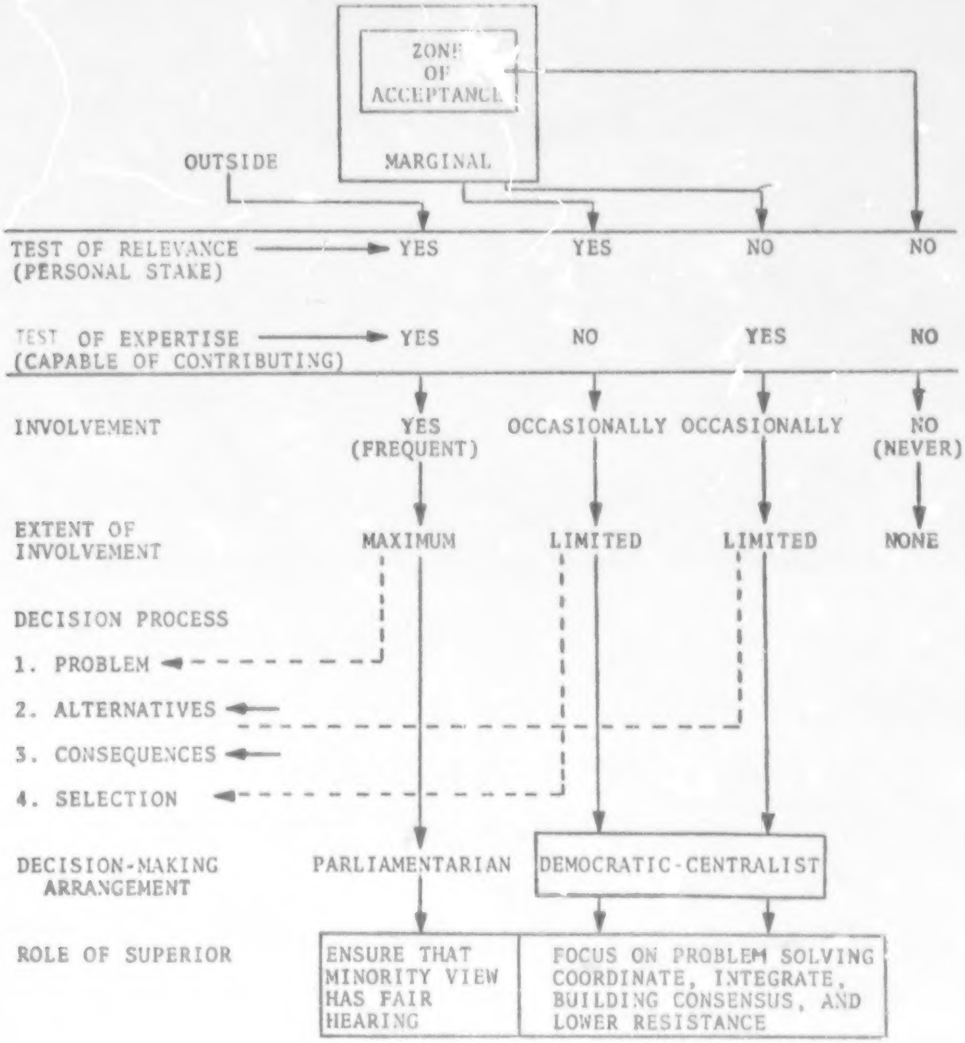

Figure 4.4. Model for Shared Decision Making.

Source: Hoy, W. K., & Miskel, C. G. Educational administration: Theory, research, and practice. New York: Random House, Inc., 1978, p. 230.

of expertise became involved in decisional issues. In addition, however, involvement in the decision process was desired by teachers who lacked personal interest and expertise in the issue at hand. Departmental chairpersons were asked by members of their respective departments to raise concerns in which the chairperson had little interest or expertise. Furthermore, departmental members demanded that their representatives to the faculty advisory council take an active participatory role in the decision-making process on issues about which some departmental members expressed an interest. Thus, the question of consolidating multiple attendance lists was discussed because a departmental chairperson fulfilled the representative role by raising this issue and a solution suggested by a teacher. Apparently a third variable--test of constituency--brought the East staff into the decision-making process. The concept of constituency will be examined further as grounded theory.

Related to the above example is the concept of identification of a problem within the rational decision-making model. The model assumes that problem identification is a rational, apolitical process. Political influence and maneuvering has always been viewed as occurring in the alternative formulation stage. The above mentioned attendance list issue demonstrated that political pressures may well be influential even in the problem identification stage. That is to say, a social system could inhibit individual problem identification. This could suspend an issue's entrance into the decision-making process until a sizeable coalition of support had been built to ensure its consideration as a serious problem. For example, the issue of East's "no-fail grading policy" had been an issue of major concern to some teachers for many years. Yet, the issue was not identified as a problem to be dealt with until a group of dissatisfied teachers managed to have the grading policy identified as a problem. Once identified, the problem then had to be resolved through the decision-making process. This aspect of decision making will be analyzed in the grounded theory section of this chapter.

Closely aligned to the question of problem identification as a political process is the role of the principal as the controller of the school's decision-making process. The East principal pushed issues into the problem identification stage without staff coalition or support. By virtue of his being at the top of the organizational structure, the principal's interests controlled the decision-making process by identifying and dealing with the principal's concerns. Thus, Miller's major concerns of staff development, teacher advisor program, school philosophy and direction, model school funding, and community support were immediately identified as problems and entered the decision-making process. Positional power, as well as personal influence, enabled the principal to have a significant impact on the school's decision-making process. This new aspect of decision making will be revisited as grounded theory.

East High School's decision-making structure, even in a state of flux, confirmed many of the concepts of rational and participative decision making. Decisional content, stages, and involvement were useful tools of analysis and accurate descriptors of the situation. Modifications, however, were needed in the concepts of zone of acceptance, apolitical problem identification, and the principal's interest factor with respect to the decision-making process. Grounded theory will address these aspects of decision making.

Change Theory

The evolution of East High School's program during its nine years of existence made change theory an important concept for analysis of the data. The emphasis on the stages of change within an organization, rather than the process of the change itself, focused on two change models described below. Hage and Aiken (1970) identified four specific stages through which an organization evolves as innovation is attempted. Klausmeier, Karges, and Krupa (1977) have described five phases of change for schools implementing the IGE model.

Hage and Aiken (1970, p. 94) proposed four stages that every organization must move through to achieve innovation:

1. Evaluation. The first stage in which organizational decision makers (a) determine that their system is not

accomplishing its goals as effectively as it could be and (b) change the goals of their system.

2. Initiation. The second stage is concerned with the decision making and problem solving to find required job skills and financial support that are required for the innovation.
3. Implementation. This is the initial attempt to integrate the innovation into the organization. Resistance and disequilibrium are likely to be high because of unexpected problems and sources of resistance that are likely to be encountered as the innovation is actually introduced.
4. Routinization. This follows the initial trial that took place in the implementation stage. In routinization the decision is made to retain the innovation and fully integrate it into the ongoing activities of the organization.

Hage and Aiken's dynamic change process can be considered cyclical in that reevaluation may occur after routinization to determine the necessity of initiating further innovations.

An implementation model for nationwide dissemination of IGE was developed at the Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Individualized Schooling (Klausmeier, Karges, & Krupa, 1977). The five-phase process of implementing educational change was described as follows:

1. Awareness. Local educators become sensitive to the need for change and become informed about programmatic alternatives. Decision makers are given an overview of a program in order to stimulate them to consider it and information regarding the required commitments to adopt it.
2. Commitment. Local decision makers compile the necessary information and secure the necessary commitments, approvals, and cooperation of people--staff, parents, community groups, and the school board. At the end of this phase, the decision to adopt or not to adopt the program improvement is made. In making the decision to adopt, local educators are provided with information describing the change, cost factors, evaluation results, and the requirements for implementing the change.
3. Changeover. The school staff becomes prepared to make the changeover. First, leaders are identified, receive instruction regarding the change, and develop plans for implementation. Specific plans are operationalized during the changeover period, and throughout, the school staff participates in ongoing staff development.
4. Refinement. After school staffs have begun implementing the change program, they find that new understandings and skills are required to refine their implementation

efforts. The need for refinement emerges out of the fact that the staff members are expected to perform their responsibilities in new ways. On the basis of systematic feedback, the change program itself may also be refined.

5. Renewal. This stage includes activities designed to identify and resolve unanticipated problems, to develop improved ways of implementing the change, and to prepare successive generations of professional personnel to fill new and expanded roles.

East High School's evolution followed the four stages described by Hage and Aiken (1970). The district's decision to establish a model schools program and build and staff an innovative high school as part of that program was a result of the evaluation process in which the district organization had engaged itself. Once the decision was made to embark on the model schools program, the district sought outside grants and funding and initiated a rigorous staff selection process for the new type of school being built. The myriad of problems the school's staff faced during the first few years of the school's operation was typical of the implementation stage where resistance and disequilibrium are high. Finally, the problems of community support, administrative and organizational flaws, and student frustration were mostly resolved as the school's program became routinized.

Although Hage and Aiken presented a realistic description of the difficulties encountered when making a change, the IGE model recognized a school's need for continuing refinement and renewal beyond the routinization stage. The East staff was increasingly concerned that the lack of refinement and renewal was resulting in a regression to pre-innovation days of traditional educational practices. Staff development and redefinition of the school's direction were major issues at East, indicative of its efforts to "get out of the rut" of the routinization stage. Thus, the addition of the IGE phases of refinement and renewal to Hage and Aiken's four stages offered a comprehensive description of the change process at East High School. This combined model will be analyzed further as grounded theory.

The stages of change also demanded different leadership styles at East High School. Initially, vision and curricular expertise were needed to establish an innovative school that would succeed in a somewhat traditional district. Once the changes were implemented, a leader with strong administrative and organizational skills was needed to enable the school to move into the routinization stage. Finally, refinement and renewal required a leader with the energy and direction to maintain the school's goals and the changes made to accomplish them. Although high administrative turnover occurred during the initial sta[illegible] of routinization, and thereby created problems a steadier principalship may have avoided, the link between appropriate leadership styles and change phases was evident at East.

Related to the change stages and suitable leadership styles at East was decision involvement. Different people were involved in the decision-making process at differing levels and frequencies depending on the change stages and leader behavior. Early stages in the change process had frequent involvement at a very high level from most of the staff. Routinization signalled a decrease in staff involvement as the school administration switched to a representative advisory group as the mode of staff input. The refinement phase had the entire staff increasingly involved but at varying levels.

The relationship between change, leadership, and decision making will be discussed in detail as grounded theory.

Motivation Theory

Staff satisfaction and morale made motivation theory an important concept for analysis of the data. The major issues of teacher "burnout" and staff development pointed to Herzberg's (1966) two-factor theory as an appropriate model for analyzing East High School.

Herzberg's (1966) two-factor theory, also referred to as the motivator-hygiene theory, expanded Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs theory of human motivation. Herzberg identified two distinct and separate factors which contributed to job satisfaction--hygienes and motivators. Sergiovanni (1967) applied Herzberg's theory to educational organizations and concluded that the theory was useful in describing teacher satisfaction.

Hygienic factors, which are similar to Maslow's low level physiological, safety, and social needs, contribute to job dissatisfaction. These dissatisfiers, when not gratified, lead to job dissatisfaction. When the hygienic factors are gratified, only minimal job satisfaction results. The hygienes/dissatisfiers include the following: interpersonal relations with subordinates, interpersonal relations with superordinates, interpersonal relations with peers, supervision, policy and administration, working conditions, and personal life.

Conversely, motivators are similar to Maslow's high level esteem and self-actualization needs, and contribute to job satisfaction. The gratification of motivators increases job satisfaction. When the motivators are not gratified, only minimal job dissatisfaction results. The motivators/satisfiers include the following: achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement.

The two factors--hygienes and motivators--tend to be mutually exclusive in their effect on job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Subsequent studies have led Hoy and Miskel (1978) to propose a modification in Herzberg's theory for educational organizations by inserting a third factor, ambients, into the model. Ambients, which include salary, growth possibility, risk opportunity, relationships with superordinates, and status, contribute equally to satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Additionally, it was postulated that an abundance of hygienes could contribute to job satisfaction, and a lack of motivators could contribute to dissatisfaction.

Staff morale at East High School supported Herzberg's contention that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction were separate dimensions of work orientation rather than opposites. Thus, teachers were highly satisfied in some respects and highly dissatisfied at the same time in other areas.

Dissatisfaction surfaced in the hygienic aspects of school life such as physical plant, available resources, and noise level. Interpersonal relations with superordinates had been a source of dissatisfaction with many staff members in previous years. Interpersonal relations with peers was a potential dissatisfier among the East staff due to increasing faculty polarization on major issues, but had not yet contributed to either satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Interpersonal relations with subordinates, contrary to Herzberg's theory, contributed significantly to staff satisfaction and was a motivator in the school. Satisfaction was also linked with the opportunity for advancement within the district and achievement of staff goals. There was some satisfaction due to recognition, the work itself, and job responsibility, but these factors actually contributed more to staff dissatisfaction because of the overload on teachers in these areas.

Teacher "burnout" was attributed to many hygienic factors such as inadequate resources, counterproductive facilities, and administrative policies and procedures. Yet, "burnout" also resulted from the work itself when role enlargement gave the staff additional tasks. The pressures of so much responsibility in making decisions within the classroom because of the continuous progress curriculum and personalized educational program also contributed to dissatisfaction. Likewise, the abundance of recognition as a model school with frequent visitors became a serious dissatisfier as teachers grew frustrated by having to perform for guests and listen to glowing reports when real problems were ignored. Finally, the intense interpersonal relations with students--which was ranked as the greatest motivator by many teachers--was also viewed as the number one cause of teacher "burnout."

The incongruities between Herzberg's theory and the data from a nontraditional school depict a situation which demands a new conceptualization of motivation theory. Modifications to Herzberg's theory will be discussed later as grounded theory.

Administrative Processes

One of the foci of this study, administrative processes, emerged as being significant because of the matrix it provided for interrelating administrative practice and formal theory. The processes utilized by administrators were the methods by which theory was put into practice. Many authors have developed taxonomies of the processes of administration including Chase (1955). Chase's taxonomy of administrative processes included planning, allocating, stimulating, coordinating, and evaluating. These processes were defined as follows (Chase, 1955, p 17):

1. Planning. The attempt to control the future in the direction of the desired goals through decisions made on the basis of careful estimates of the probable consequences of possible courses of action.
2. Allocating. The procurement and allotment of human and material resources in accordance with the operating plan.
3. Stimulating. The motivation of behavior in terms of the desired outcomes.
4. Coordinating. The process of fitting together the various groups and operations into an integrated pattern of purpose-achieving work.
5. Evaluating. The continuous examination of the effects produced by the ways in which the other processes listed are performed.

All of the above administrative processes were evident at East High School in each of the functional areas of the principalship--curriculum and instruction, staff personnel, student personnel, finance and business management, school plant services, and home-school-community relations. Analysis of the processes was significant because the data cut across all formal theories discussed earlier and helped explain both the strengths and weaknesses of the administrative organization as well as the behaviors observed in the school.

Planning

The high administrative turnover at East inhibited appropriate planning activity in recent years. Changes in the principalship resulted in the school's drifting on courses that shifted according to individual staff preferences. Therefore, the newly appointed principal made planning a top priority so that leadership could bring the school back on a steady course with a clearly defined direction. At the same time, day-to-day planning by the staff for classroom activities was quite intense and a point of pride for teachers.

Allocating

A scarcity of resources presented a major task to the principal in attempting to allocate time and money for the achievement of school goals. The district's budgetary process placed much of the control in the hands of central office personnel so allocating resources was done through maintenance of the model schools program, utilization of personnel for instruction rather than clerical or security duties, use of space (even storage rooms) for classroom areas, and scheduling based on flexible time.

Stimulating

Bold attempts at stimulating students, staff, and parents were made by the new principal in the opening weeks of his administration. A staff development plan was being prepared to invigorate the teachers. Students were aroused in class meetings in which the school's administrative team applauded school spirit and encouraged students to seek personal growth and achievement. Parental participation was a major goal of the principal and activities were being planned to incorporate adults into school life on a regular basis.

Coordinating

The coordinating process was a major task in a school that prided itself on individualization. A lack of coordination in the past had let staff members pursue somewhat contradictory paths for the same students. Interdisciplinary courses were dropped because of the problems caused by a lack of coordination. Paperwork associated with grading records required coordinating processes which were inadequate and resulted in dissatisfaction. New attempts at coordinating focused on meetings of students, teachers, and parents in participative decision-making bodies which would promote two-way communication and better coordination of the school's educational program.

Evaluating

Although students were evaluated in their classes on a daily basis in many cases, administrative evaluation of the school's processes was lacking. Again, the difficulties of administrative turnover in the school prevented very much continuity or evaluation. The new principal, with several years of tenure at the school, had initiated a comprehensive evaluation of the school's programs and processes. Task forces, study committees, and retreats--as well as formal and informal observations and discussions--were being implemented to evaluate the school's present status so that planning could take place.

Together, the five administrative processes demonstrated how the principal utilized various processes to strengthen all aspects of the school's organization and program. The formal theories about organizational structure, social systems, organizational climate, leadership, decision making, change, and motivation were all entwined in the administrative processes used daily to operate East High School.

Grounded Theory

Analysis of ethnographic research data is an ongoing process generated from the data collected through rigorous observation procedures. Grounded propositions emerge from the analysis and are systematically worked out in relationship to the data during the course of the research (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

A four-step process described by Glaser and Strauss (1967) as the constant comparative method was used whereby categories, properties, and hypotheses about general problems were generated; incidents applicable to each category, property, or hypothesis were compared; categories and properties were integrated; and the grounded theoretical propositions were limited and then written as grounded theory.

Once the post-fieldwork stage of the research was begun, recurring themes were identified and propositions were constructed with corresponding data presented to support those themes and propositions (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). A series of questions then had to be answered. These questions were developed by Bogdan and Taylor (1975) and included:

1. Do the data support the propositions?
2. Were the data statements solicited or unsolicited?
3. How much influence did the observers have in the setting?
4. Were the data statements made in the presence of others?

5. Are the data statements direct statements or inferences?
6. Who said what and did what?
7. Were the subjects telling the truth?

The grounded propositions that emerged from the data of the present study presented specific information about the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors of the selected school. These grounded theoretical propositions were discussed in relationship to existing formal theory and other related studies. The data supported some existing formal theory and other research efforts, identified needed modification of some existing formal theory, and pointed to the potential need for new grounded theory. The next two sections will explore these modifications and propose new grounded theory and relationships.

Modifications of Formal Theories

Analysis of the data revealed grounded practice that differed from what was expected based on several formal theories. In this section those differences are examined and modifications are suggested in axiomatic organizational theory, social systems theory, decision theory, change theory, and motivation theory.

Axiomatic Organizational Theory. Hage's (1965) definition of the two extreme organizational types was at variance with the data of this study. Although East High School was generally representative of an organic organization, the complexity of the staff was low and the production was high. As a somewhat mechanistic organization, the Maryville school district was characterized by high complexity. Hage's theory could not account for the fact that the bureaucratic organization had high complexity while the professional organization had low complexity. Likewise, high production had always been associated with a mechanistic organization's high centralization and low job satisfaction, but East's high production calls into question the assumption that bureaucracy is needed for high output.

An analysis of the data collected at East and the above anomalies in Hage's theory suggest that three of the seven axioms should be restated as follows:

1. Centralization may not affect production.
   Although the school had low centralization and the district had high centralization, both organizations consistently demonstrated high production.
5. Stratification may not affect production.
   Although the school had low stratification and the district had high stratification, production remained high for both organizations.
7. The higher the complexity, the higher the centralization.
   Contrary to Hage's theory, complexity and centralization were linked both in the school and in the district organizations.

The discrepancies with Hage's theory outlined above suggested that the axiomatic organizational theory may not be entirely accurate for describing school organizations, especially innovative secondary schools established to change the basic relationships in and assumptions traditionally held about schools.

Social Systems Theory. The idiographic, nomothetic, and cultural dimensions of the social systems theory (Getzels & Guba, 1957; Getzels, Lipham, & Campbell, 1968) did not explain all of the observed behavior in the East High School social system. Two political dimensions, one associated with the institutional aspect and one associated with the individual aspect, were necessary to explain the data. These two proposed political dimensions of the social systems model are described below, followed by an analysis of the relevant data to demonstrate the applicability of the new dimensions.

The nomothetic aspect of the political dimension was based on the authority inherent in some institutions. This authority could be described as legal or traditional. The authority of the institution finds expression in the power associated with a role. This power can be used to control social behavior and decisions.

The idiographic aspect of the political dimension focused on the status that each individual had within an organization. That status enabled people to exert influence which, in turn, affected social behavior and decisions in the social system. The two political dimensions are shown schematically in a proposed new model of social systems (Figure 4.5).

Departmental chairpersons occupied institutional roles which had expectations that might be in congruence with personal needs. Yet, some chairpersons were able to exert more influence and to greatly affect the social system because of their personal status in the organization. Other chairpersons tended to exercise control by using the power emanating from their legal/traditional authority. Some chairpersons were able to use both power and influence to attain their desired goals.

Veteran teachers affected many occurrences within the social system because of their influence which was based in their status in the social system. Some staff members exerted disproportional influence at the school even though their role was not one which carried institutional or positional power. It was their personal status and prestige that enabled these teachers to influence the organization.

Coalition leaders, although often chosen for their status, relied heavily on their authority as political leaders to gain the desired goals of the coalition. The East teachers who favored group-paced classes, a revised grading policy, or the appointment of the principal tried to control the organization by using the power stemming from the authority of a political leader with a constituency. Without a group of followers, coalition leaders would

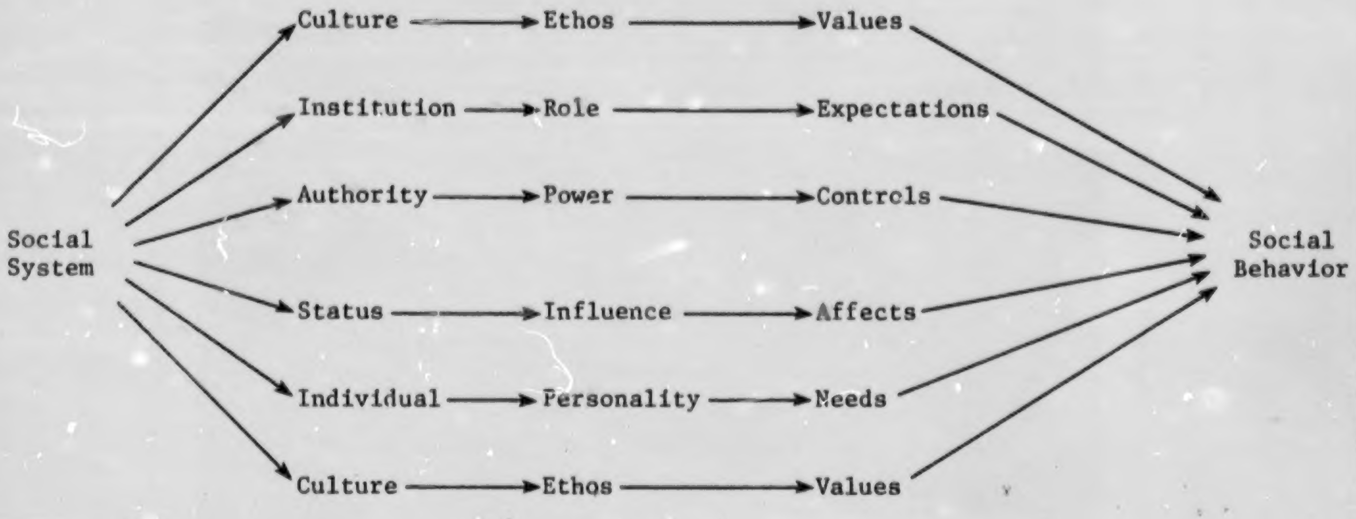

Figure 4.5. Social Systems Model Expanded to Include Proposed Political Dimensions.

have been ineffective, but once a sizeable coalition was formed, the leaders could then rely on their institutional authority to give them the power to exert influence on the organization.

The addition of these two political dimensions accounted for observed social behavior which was left unexplained by the interaction between the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions.

Decision Theory. The rational decision-making model (Lipham, 1980; Hoy & Miskel, 1978) described earlier in this chapter accounted for much of the decision-making process at East High School, Yet, three additional factors were necessary to fully explain the data. The concepts of decision involvement based on a constituency, problem identification determined by political influence, and decisional issues chosen due to principal interest will be discussed as modifications of existing decision theory.

Decision involvement based solely on personal interest and expertise was not adequate to account for the observed involvement of some participants in the decision-making process. Departmental chairpersons and student government representatives, especially, were often involved in decision making even though they lacked personal interest or expertise in the issue. This seemingly anomalous involvement was explained by a representative's duty to fulfill the role of spokesperson for a constituency. Thus a test of constituency revealed that involvement was based on the representative's role, rather than interest or expertise. This representative function was very important in a participative decision-making process where direct democracy was not possible.

The identification of a problem, as the first step in the decision-making process, had been viewed in the past as an apolitical process. An analysis of the data at East suggested that problem identification was both a rational and a political process. Problems were not generally raised by individuals but by groups. Before bringing a problem up for consideration and therefore entrance into the decision-making process, a person sought support from other members of the organization who would be able to exert power and influence in the decision-making process. This "lobbying" effort preceded problem identification to ensure that the opposing faction would not "pigeon-hole" or control the issue. The more controversial and divisive the issue (e.g., grading policy, group-pacing), the more extensive was the political activity necessary for building a coalition before formally identifying the problem as an issue for entrance into the decision-making process. Individual concerns raised as problems tended to be dismissed by those controlling the decision-making process; instead, agendas were filled with issues having a broad base of support.

The greatest amount of political power in the school with regard to bringing issues to the decision-making process belonged to the principal. Even as an individual without coalitional support, the principal was able to control and influence the identification of problems through his positional power and personal influence. The interests of a principal were priority items for the decision-making process and became major decisional issues. The East principal's interests (e.g., staff development, teacher advisor program, school philosophy and direction, model school funding, and community support) were pushed into the problem identification stage and became major decisional issues. With the support and concern of the organization's leader, the above mentioned issues were expedited through the decision-making process. Without the principal's interest, issues were dealt with depending on the nature of the problem and the factions involved.

While decision theory explained most of East's decision-making process, modifications were proposed in the areas of decision involvement, problem identification, and the principal's impact on the decision-making process.

Change Theory. The evolution of East High School was analyzed using Hage and Aiken's (1970) four stages of change. Although these stages presented a realistic picture of change, and an accurate description of East High School, the IGE change model developed by Klausmeier, Karges, and Krupa (1977) was useful for its insight into what occurs beyond the routinization stage of change. It was therefore suggested that the refinement and renewal phases of the IGE model be added to Hage and Aiken's four stages of change. The new six-stage model would be as follows: evaluation, initiation, implementation, routinization, refinement, renewal.

The six-stage change model developed above was strongly supported by the data. Nevertheless, all change models were inadequate in explaining the initial "seed" stages of the "germination" of an idea for change. That is, a leader often had a philosophy encompassing organizational goals and objectives as well as operational ideals. Through this philosophical screen a leader built a vision of the form which the organization should take. Then, the leader explored the feasibility and desirability of attaining the vision for the organization through an assessment. Based on this assessment, a leader then began to operationalize the change process through the first stage of change--evaluation. The three "germination" stages of change--philosophy, vision, and assessment--set the framework for the model school plan of East High School. Subsequent changes, even minor changes, began with a plan that was the result of a leader's "germination" activity.

The concept that a leader had an idea for change, studied the idea, and then launched it had a significant effect on existing change theory. According to the data, a change leader began the change process in advance of the members of the organization and remained at least one stage ahead of the organization's members as a planner and an effective leader. Observed leaders did not move blindly into a change and learned at the same time as the followers. Schematically, the proposed modification of the change model for schools is shown in Figure 4.6.

Leader(s)		Members
Philosophy	↔	Routinization
Vision	↔	Routinization
Assessment	↔	Routinization
Initiation	↔	Evaluation
Implementation	←	Initiation
Routinization	↔	Implementation
Refinement	↔	Routinization
Renewal	↔	Refinement
Evaluation	↔	Renewal

Figure 4.6. Change Theory--Leadership and Member Phases.

The above change model acknowledges that the leader for a change might be anyone in the organization, or a group, such as a coalition of teachers or the board of education in Maryville. Also, this model of change could be applied to all levels of the organization so that teachers would be considered change leaders in their classrooms with students as the organizational members.

Motivation Theory. Herzberg's (1966) two-factor motivation theory was used to analyze staff morale and teacher "burnout" at East High School. Hygienic factors which were identified as dissatisfiers included interpersonal relationships with superordinates, interpersonal relationships with peers, supervision, policy and administration, working conditions, and personal life. Conversely, motivators which were identified as satisfiers included achievement and advancement.

Contrary to Herzberg's theory, an analysis of the East data suggested that interpersonal relationships with subordinates were a motivating factor rather than a hygiene factor. Also, the supposed motivators of recognition, work itself, and responsibility were significant causes of dissatisfaction. These four anomalies in Herzberg's theory will be discussed and a modification of existing motivation theory will be presented.

It was assumed by Herzberg (1966), and later by Sergiovanni (1967), that interpersonal relations with students was a hygiene factor to teachers. Teachers at East, however, cited relations with students as one of their major sources of satisfaction and reasons for teaching. East teachers felt this way because positive relations between staff and students had been fostered by the teacher advisor program and open climate of the school. The role of teacher advisor placed an entirely new expectation at the heart of the school's program--that subordinates (i.e., students) and superordinates (i.e., teachers) could work closely together and form warm relationships. Whereas teachers in traditional schools might view students as subordinates and apart from the work itself, East teachers were more likely to view students as partners in education and the central focus of this work.

The work, supposedly a motivator, became a dissatisfier as role enlargement made it too intense for teachers inadequately trained for these new roles. In addition to the teaching and advising duties, maintenance duties associated with these primary duties were a major source of dissatisfaction and frustration. The surfeit of paperwork necessary to fulfill adequately the teacher role and the advisor role created a great burden for the staff.

The individual responsibility lodged with each staff member also presented a situation where a motivator turned into a major dissatisfier. Faced with a myriad of decisions associated with the curriculum in an open, continuous progress school, teachers were sagging under the weight of job responsibility. The personal responsibility for 20 to 25 advisees also contributed to this type of dissatisfaction.

Although recognition was considered by Herzberg to be a motivator, the steady stream of visitors to East High school also represented a source of irritation or dissatisfaction. Some teachers resented being performers for an audience, especially when visitors ignored limitations of the school's program. Recognition as a model school became a dissatisfier when the staff was continually complimented and the serious problems were ignored. Recognition under these conditions became somewhat of a bad joke and ultimately a dissatisfier. Individual staff members received personal recognition, but this was also viewed as commonplace and superficial.

All of the above factors contributed to teacher "burnout." Some staff members transferred to other schools, left teaching, or lost interest and effectiveness on the job. Although Herzberg's theory maintained that the work itself, responsibility, and recognition were motivators, an analysis of the East data clearly demonstrated a curvilinear relationship for motivation between satisfaction and dissatisfaction. That is, motivators did tend to satisfy when used in moderation; however, excessive use of motivators resulted in a state of dissatisfaction where only actions reducing the "burnout" factors could motivate teachers.

Analysis of the East data suggested that Herzberg's two-factor motivation theory was linear with respect to hygiene factors but was curvilinear with respect to motivating factors. Where there is too much responsibility, recognition, and role enlargement for the work itself, school staff members may be dissatisfied. Furthermore, subordinate relations could be transferred into a motivating factor if a new framework was built for those traditional relations between teachers and students.

Interaction of Theory in Grounded Practice

A dynamic interplay of change, decision, and leadership was observed. An attempt to apply individual theories to practice fails to take into account the interactions of variables among the theories. Although social systems theory, with its organizational, individual, and political dimensions, acknowledged much of the interaction between roles and personalities, it did not totally account for the data on change, decision making, and leadership.

A proposed model of the relationship between leadership, change, and the decision-making process was developed by Artis (1980), Brittenham (1980), and Zimman (1980) from the data in this study and the two companion studies. The model is shown schematically in Figure 4.7.

The model will be explained and the data will be analyzed using the proposed model and the terms defined earlier in the chapter. A review of the change model will be followed by the leadership model and its relation to change. The model of the decision-making process will then be explained and linked to change and leadership. Finally, the data will be analyzed across the stages of the complete interactive model.

It was noted earlier that modification of existing change theory and models was necessary to account for the evolution of East High School. Leaders, before initiating the formal change process, engaged in a three-stage "germination" process to evaluate and plan the forthcoming change. Organization members were engaged in their own routinization stage during the leader's "germination" stages. Once the leader began initiating the change by calling for members to evaluate the present situation, the leader was established as being in the vanguard of the change and remained at least one stage ahead of the organization's members throughout the change process.

Dominant Leadership		Change Phases		Decision Involvement		
Styles	Stages	Leaders	Members	Who	Frequency	Level
• Goal Emphasis • Work Facilitation	Attempted Attempted Attempted	Philosophy Vision Assessment	Routinization	Expertise Expertise Expertise	Often Often Very Often	Provide Information Formulate Alternatives Suggest Alternatives
• Goal Emphasis • Support	Attempted	Initiation	Evaluation	Interest-Expertise	Very Often	Make Decision
• Work Facilitation • Interaction Facilitation	Accepted	Implementation	Initiation	Interest-Expertise-Constituency	Very Often	Make Decision
• Work Facilitation • Support	Implemented	Routinization	Implementation	Expertise-Constituency	Often	Make Decision
• Work Facilitation • Interaction Facilitation	Effective	Refinement	Routinization	Constituency	Seldom	Make Decision
• Goal Emphasis • Support	Attempted	Renewal	Refinement	Interest-Expertise-Constituency	Very Often	Make Decision
• Goal Emphasis • Interaction Facilitation	Effective	Evaluation	Renewal	Expertise-Constituency	Often	Make Decision

Figure 4.7. The Model of the Relationship Between Leadership, Change, and Decision-Making Process.

Closely interwoven with the leader's place in the change process were the dominant leadership styles and leadership stages discussed earlier concerning leadership theory. While the leader was engaged in the "germination" stages of the change process, the dominant leadership styles were goal emphasis to pave the way for change and work facilitation to maintain the organization during its routinization phase. The leadership stage was "attempted" before the change was actually initiated.

During the leader's initiation stage of change, and the members' evaluation stage, goal emphasis was utilized by the leader to structure the evaluation of the current state and to gain support of subordinates during their abstract and sometimes threatening task of evaluation. The leadership stage was still "attempted" at this point because the organization had not yet accepted the change.

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Once the organization accepted and initiated the change, the leader's dominant style shifted to one of work facilitation to ensure that the tasks were completed with a minimum of difficulty. Interaction facilitation was used to help the staff work together while initiating the change. At this point the "attempted" leadership had been "accepted" by the members of the organization.

When the change was finally implemented within the organization, the leader continued to emphasize work facilitation but shifted to a support style to help members cope with the change. Leadership was recognized as "implemented."

Routinization of the change by the members required continued work facilitation to maintain the smooth operation of the organization. Interaction facilitation was utilized to encourage good staff working relationships. Leadership was viewed as "effective" when the organization had finally routinized the change.

Upon entering the refinement stage, the members sought a leader who utilized goal emphasis for the fine tuning process. Support was necessary to help individual members prepare for subsequent change. Once again the leader was in an "attempted" stage of leadership.

When renewal was accomplished, the leadership styles of goal emphasis and interaction facilitation again were dominant to refocus the organization's efforts by enhancing intrastaff communication. The leader had been "effective" in renewing the organization.

A participatory decision-making process also interacted with the change process and the leadership styles and stages. The variables of decision involvement were dynamically related in such a way that who was involved in the decision process, how often the participants were involved, and at what level participants were involved all differed with respect to the change stages and leadership styles and stages.

Leaders involved people with expertise during the "germination" stages of change. Experts were asked to provide information often during the philosophy stage. The experts' level of involvement was raised to formulating alternatives during the vision stage so that an ideal organization could be envisioned. During a leader's assessment stage, the experts were consulted very often and were asked to suggest alternatives for the planned change.

Once the change was formally introduced, organization members with interest and expertise were involved very often to lay the foundation during this evaluation stage. Although a truly participative decision-making model suggested that actually making the decision would be the appropriate level henceforth, leaders operating in a modified participative decision-making process sometimes would modify the level of involvement. Decisional equilibrium for all organizational members was maintained by varying the identity of the participants involved and the frequency of their involvememt. A high level of involvement was dysfunctional, resulting in decisional saturation, only when identification and involvement of the appropriate participants and the level of their involvement were not adequately managed by the leader.

The organization's initiation stage was characterized by involvement of those with interest, expertise, and a constituency. Thus, a large portion of the staff was involved very often.

Frequency of involvement was decreased to "often" during the implementation stage. Involvement was limited to those with expertise and a constituency, as they were viewed as having knowledge and/or influence to expedite this crucial stage.

With most of the decisions being simply administrative ones during the routinization stage, participation in the decision-making process was at its lowest point. Only those members with a constituency were involved, and those representatives of the staff were seldom involved to avoid decisional saturation.

The refinement stage, however, was characterized by increased participation, similar to that occurring during the initiation stage. Members with interest, expertise, and a constituency were involved very often to refine the change.

During the renewal stage, participation included those with expertise and a constituency. The participants were involved often to direct the final stage of change.

The evolution of East High School's teacher advisor program illustrated the applicability of the above model of the relationships among leadership, change, and the decision-making process.

Germination Stages. The leader developed the teacher-advisor concept for the school during the "germination" stages.

The continuous progress and personalization philosophy of education resulted in a vision of a teacher advisor program as a pivotal aspect of East High School's educational plan. Other teacher advisor programs were evaluated and the practical aspects were assessed before deciding to propose the change. Leadership was clearly focused at the ultimate goals of the school at this time and actions were taken to facilitate accomplishment of those goals. Those with expertise were consulted by the leader in his "germination" stages.

Initiation-Evaluation Stage. The original staff members evaluated the teacher advisor program that the leader was proposing to initiate. Emphasis was on the school's goals and support for those members attempting the innovative approach was given by the leader as he attempted leadership in this stage. Staff members with interest and expertise were directly involved in the evaluation decisions.

Implementation-Initiation Stage. With the decision made to accept the teacher advisor program, the leadership initiative was accepted. Efforts then focused on structuring the program with the entire staff working together through work facilitation and interaction facilitation leadership styles. Involvement was high with virtually everyone participating.

Routinization-Implementation Stage. Implementation of the teacher advisor program, which coincided with the leader's efforts to routinize his change, was a sign of implemented leadership. Work facilitation and support leadership styles were now utilized to ensure the success of the implementation plan with all staff receiving personal assistance and encouragement. Participation decreased slightly with experts and representatives taking the largest role in decisions.

Refinement-Routinization Stage. The teacher advisor program became a key aspect of the school's program. Routinization and internalization of the change by the organization demonstrated effective leadership. Preparing for the next stage of refinement, the leader maintained the smooth operation of the program through work facilitation and interaction facilitation. Representatives were utilized to funnel programmatic concerns and make decisions regarding the teacher advisor program.

Renewal-Refinement Stage. Improvement of the teacher advisor program occurred over a period of several years as the program matured and as principal and staff turnover occurred. Leaders utilized goal emphasis and support to encourage reevaluation by most of the staff aimed at refining the teacher advisor program. Leaders were in the attempted stage of leadership during this time. Some changes were made because of the leader's influence in the renewal phase, but administrative turnover prevented the staff from reaching the renewal stage.

Evaluation-Renewal Stage. The renewal stage of change for the teacher advisor program was finally attained by the organization when a new principal was appointed and staff turnover decreased. Utilizing goal emphasis and interaction facilitation leadership styles, the leader involved members with expertise and a constituency but less frequently than in the previous stage. Engaged in an evaluation stage, the leader was effective in promoting a renewal and restructuring of the teacher advisor program to achieve its goals. The program's continued excellence remained dependent on the ongoing leader evaluation and organizational renewal of the teacher advisor program.

This chapter included a review of the formal theories relevant to the data collected in this study. The data were analyzed using axiomatic organizational theory, social systems theory, organizational climate, leadership theory, decision theory, change theory, and motivation theory. Chase's taxonomy of administrative processes was also utilized. Modifications in formal theory based on grounded theory from the data were then suggested including organizational theory, social systems theory, decision theory, change theory, and motivation theory. Finally, grounded practice was analyzed using a proposed model of the relationship between leadership, change, and the decision-making process. The last chapter will include a summary of the study, conclusions, implications for practice, and implications for further research.

CHAPTER V

OVERVIEW, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter consists of three sections. The first section provides a brief overview of the study. The second section includes a summary of the conclusions related to each formal theory utilized and gives related implications for practice. The final section presents some implications for further research.

Overview of the Study

This study consisted of an ethnographic analysis of the administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior in a senior high school that had implemented educational programming for the individual student. Field methodology, including in-depth interviews, participant observation, and document analysis, was used to describe and explain the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in the selected school. Grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was generated from the data gathered at the research site. Propositions were developed to support existing formal theory, to modify current formal theory, and to suggest new theory about administrative organization, processes, and behavior.

The conceptual and theoretical constructs that emerged as important included organizational theory with emphasis on Hage's

(1965) axiomatic theory of complex organizations; social systems theory (Getzels, Lipham, & Campbell, 1968) with emphasis on the congruence of role expectations and need-dispositions and the resulting social behavior; organizational climate (Halpin & Croft, 1962) with emphasis on school design, size, and administrative behavior; leadership theory (Lipham & Hoeh, 1974; Lipham & Daresh, 1980) with an emphasis on leadership styles and stages; decision theory (Lipham, 1974; Lipham & Hoeh, 1974; Lipham & Daresh, 1980; Speed, 1979; Watkins, 1978) with an emphasis on participative decision making and the decisional process; change theory (Hage & Aiken, 1970; Klausmeier, Krupa, & Kargis, 1977; Neiner, 1978) with an emphasis on appropriate leadership for the stages of change and the implementation phases of the change process; motivation theory (Herzberg, 1966) with an emphasis on motivators and hygiene factors; and administrative processes with an emphasis on Chase's (1955) taxonomy of processes. Grounded theory was generated from the data using Glaser and Strauss's (1967) four-step constant comparative method.

The study was conducted in a selected senior high school chosen during an extensive national search for exemplary secondary schools. The criteria used for the selection process included the ten comprehensive objectives of IGE secondary schools (Klausmeier, 1979). Data collection procedures included in-depth interviews, participant observation, and document analysis of pertinent literature of the school. Companion studies were conducted in two other selected senior high schools of different sizes and regions of the country (Artis, 1980; Brittenham, 1980). This study and the two companion studies attempted to furnish a comprehensive analysis of the administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior in schools that have educational programs for individual students.

Conclusions and Implications for Practice

This section presents the major conclusions that emerged from an analysis of the data. The conclusions are organized around the major theoretical constructs utilized in the study including organizational theory, social systems theory, organizational climate, leadership theory, decision theory, change theory, and motivation theory. Conclusions are also presented regarding administrative processes and grounded theory. Some implications for practice are included in the discussion of the conclusions for each theory.

Axiomatic Organizational Theory

The organizational structures of both the school and the school district were analyzed utilizing Hage's (1965) axiomatic theory of complex organizations. Structural and outcome variables were examined and compared to Hage's ideal organizational types. The school resembled an organic organization, and the school district resembled a mechanistic organization. The resulting conflict between the organic school organization and the mechanistic district organization was a constant concern of nearly everyone from students to central office administrators. The attempt to operate an organic school within a mechanistic district created many problems but illustrated the possibility of coexistence of two different types within the hierarchy of a school organization.

The school itself demonstrated that an organization can be productive without being centralized, formalized, and stratified. An organic organization is capable of maintaining high productivity despite its emphasis on personalization and job satisfaction. Furthermore, a professional organization need not be highly complex to be an organic organization.

The implication for practice is that schools need not sacrifice personalization and satisfaction to achieve productivity. The idea that an organic organization can maintain high productivity and can thrive within a larger mechanistic organization demonstrates that traditionally held beliefs may not be valid when the basic organizational relationships commonly attributed to secondary educational institutions are changed.

Social Systems Theory

Social systems theory (Getzels, Lipham, & Campbell, 1968) provided the framework for viewing schools as dynamic, interactive social systems. The role expectations for the principal and teacher advisors were analyzed for conflict resulting from any incongruence between role expectations and need-dispositions of the members of the system. The principal had largely fulfilled the role expections held for his position. The necessity for selecting an appropriate person for this position of school leadership was clearly shown.

Teacher advisors, however, were found to be struggling with substantial conflicts regarding this new role in the secondary school. Nevertheless, the main goals of personalization of the school and academic advising were being met through the teacher advisor program. This finding implies that a school can be personalized and individualized through the creation of new roles aimed at attaining these specific goals.

Although social systems theory was very useful for analyzing and explaining role expectations and conflicts, it did not fully explain the power and influence of some members of the school. Two political dimensions were suggested to complete the social systems model. Accordingly, it was proposed that some people controlled social behavior by using power based on the institutional authority vested in their particular roles; others affected social behavior by exerting personal influence emanating from their status as members of the organization. It was concluded that political power and influence have a significant impact on the social behavior observed in the school's social system. This implies that the school community must recognize the potential effects on the system that those with personal or institutional power can have in many situations.

Organizational Climate

The organizational climate of the school was examined in terms of the variables of organizational climate described by Halpin and Croft (1962). The research regarding open school climates (Halpin & Croft, 1962) was confirmed. The impact of the school's design and size on the climate was found to be substantial. Administrative behavior was also a significant factor in establishing and maintaining the school's open climate.

While few districts currently have the necessity or opportunity to build new high schools, less dramatic measures such as redesigning existing school structures may change a school's climate. Organizational plans to create schooling units comprised of the optimum number of students and staff can also affect a school's climate. Finally, the attitude and behavior of the school administration have a significant impact on a school's climate.

Leadership Theory

Leadership of the school was analyzed using leadership styles and stages (Lipham & Hoeh, 1974; Lipham & Daresh, 1980). The leadership constructs of Halpin and Winer (1957), Bowers and Seashore (1966), and House and Mitchell (1974) all pointed to the necessity of utilizing a balanced leadership approach to achieve the most effectivenss as a school administrator. The implication is that leadership is a complex process that requires more than simply utilizing a single approach for all situations and people.

Appropriate leadership styles and stages were also closely linked to the school's change process. Confirming Neiner's (1978) conclusion that different leadership styles are necessary at different stages of the school's change process, this researcher proposed a model which outlined the leadership styles that are most effective at various stages of the change process. School leadership, then, must be adaptive and strategic for extended effectiveness. Leaders should understand the link between the change process, leadership styles, leadership stages, and decision involvement if they desire continued success as leaders.

Decision Theory

Decision theory (Lipham, 1974; Lipham & Hoeh, 1974; Lipham & Daresh, 1980; Speed, 1979; Watkins, 1978) was utilized for analyzing and explaining the decision-making processes of the school. Participative decision making was examined according to the concept of zone of acceptance. Although the two factors of interest and expertise (Bridges, 1967; Hoy & Miskel, 1978) were useful, a third factor of constituency was added to account for decisional involvement by members of the school community. Thus, representatives of various interest groups were involved because of their role responsibilities to their constituents. The necessity of involving representatives of interest groups in decisions is clearly indicated.

The political aspect of problem identification within the rational decision-making process was also analyzed. In addition to being a rational step in the decisional process, identification of the problem was found to be a highly politicized step where coalitions were built to force recognition of a problem in the organization. This implies that school leaders should be aware of the political forces at work even in the supposedly rational decision-making process.

Finally, the substantial influence of a principal in the decision-making process was studied. The principal's positional power allowed him to control the decisional agenda to the extent that his interests and concerns had to be dealt with when presented. This implies that a principal can exert significant political power of his or her own, especially when choosing the issues for consideration by those participants involved in the decision-making process. The principal's own agenda can thus become the school's agenda.

Change Theory

Two change models were utilized to describe and explain the school's change process. Hage and Aiken's (1970) four stages of change and Klausmeier, Karges, and Krupa's (1977) five phases of IGE implementation were combined to give an accurate view of the school's change cycle.

The proposed model of change was as follows: philosophy, vision, assessment, initiation, implementation, routinization, refinement, renewal, evaluation. The first three stages were collectively described as the "germination" stage where the leader established a firm philosophical base for realistic change. This implies that successful change must have a firm philosophical foundation that can provide clear direction throughout the change process. Leaders must be committed to an ideal and to a realistic change process based on their philosophy, vision, and assessment.

The change process was also found to be different for leaders of the organization than for members of the organization. In addition to instigating the change at the end of the "germination" stage, successful change leaders were found to be at least one step ahead of the members in the change process. Hence, leaders were always preparing for the next stage of change for the organization's members and thereby smoothing the path for the change to be successfully internalized by the organization. Rather than learning with the members, leaders who were ahead of the members in the change process were able to provide the necessary leadership and facilitating actions for the change to continue. The implications for leaders to be ahead of the organization rather than "muddling through" with the members of the organization are obvious for those desirous of effective leadership and successful change.

Motivation Theory

Herzberg's (1966) two-factor motivation theory provided a useful framework for analyzing staff motivation, satisfaction, and "burnout." The role of hygienes as dissatisfiers was confirmed. The role of motivators, however, was found to be curvilinear in that overuse of motivators by the administration created staff dissatisfaction. Thus, responsibility, recognition, and the work itself led to teacher "burnout" because of role enlargement and saturation of the motivating factors. In addition, interpersonal relationships with subordinates was actually a motivating factor for the staff; however, the intensity of the personalized educational relationships in the school tended to create some dissatisfaction and "burnout."

The implication for schools is that personalizing education can motivate staff, as well as students, to achieve at higher levels. Yet, it must be noted that overuse of motivators such as interpersonal relationships, responsibility, recognition, and the work itself can result in dissatisfaction and "burnout" from role enlargement. The necessity for a well designed staff development program for continuous inservice in the above areas mentioned is clearly indicated.

Administrative Processes

Chase's (1955) taxonomy of five administrative processes was utilized in this study for analyzing how administrators put theory into daily practice. The data confirmed the critical need for continuous planning, allocating, stimulating, coordinating, and evaluating in all facets of school organization and operation. The dynamic interrelationship between the processes and the foregoing theories and behavior was evident throughout the study.

Grounded Theory

A central conclusion of this study was the dynamic interplay of change, leadership, and decision theories in grounded practice. The change process was viewed as a bimodal cycle in which the leader prepared the way for the organizational members by staying at least one step ahead in the change process. Thus, it was essential that there be appropriate leadership styles and stages at every step of the change cycle. Additionally, the necessity for involving the right people at the proper time and to the optimum extent made decision involvement extremely important in the attempt to build a congruent relationship between leadership, change, and decision making.

The implication is for school leaders to apply the appropriate leadership, change, and decisional concepts discussed above at each stage of the school's evolution. Recognizing the interrelationship of all the above factors can be vital for effective school leadership, a successful change process, and staff decisional equilibrium.

Implications for Further Research

Additional research is needed to confirm the high productivity of organic school organizations and to determine whether it can be sustained. Such research, whether qualitative or quantitative, must also address the issue of the effects of mechanistic organizations on organic organizations wher[illegible] two types must work closely.

The new role of teacher advisor needs further research to understand the conflicts that have been observed in this study. This research should focus on discovering ways in which congruence could be developed between the role expectations and need-dispositions of teacher advisors.

Studies are needed to examine further the political dimensions of social systems theory proposed in this study. Further analysis is necessary to understand the impact of power and influence on a social system.

The appropriate leadership styles at various stages of a school's evolving needs is a subject that merits further study. The concept of leader flexibility and adaptability should also be addressed.

Further study is necessary, both qualitative and quantitative, to confirm the proposed test of constituency for decisional involvement. In addition to the role of representative, the political nature of decision making requires further inquiry, especially the political nature of problem identification. The role of the leader in a participative decision-making process, especially the impact of the principal's own interests on the process, should be studied.

Another area of potential research is that of the modification of the change process proposed as a result of this study. The leader-member change phases should be analyzed to gain further understanding of the change process. Also, the question of how change phases might be used in establishing the optimum degree of decisional involvement needs to be studied.

The curvilinear nature of motivators in Herzberg's (1966) two-factor theory suggested in this study requires confirmation. In addition to studying whether motivators become hygienes when overused, research is needed to confirm the motivating nature of teachers' interpersonal relationships with students.

The proposed model of the relationship between leadership, change, and decision involvement should also be researched and tested both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Finally, the research methods utilized in this study and the companion studies (Artis, 1980; Brittenham, 1980) offer some advantages over previous ethnographic studies. The use of a research team not only allowed for continual perception checks among team members, but also reinforced the validity of the data by providing the opportunity for several researchers to observe and react to the same events.

The research team approach also allowed accessibility to the respondents by offering diverse personalities for empathetic relationships to develop. Time on site could also be concentrated because the team was able to gather data quickly and to cover events occurring simultaneously. Finally, the technique of checking field propositions with a cross-section of respondents near the close of the data collection effort allowed the researchers the opportunity to validate the propositions and modify them if necessary before leaving the field site. These aspects of the field methodology utilized in this study merit further inquiry and refinement.

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APPENDIX A

ABSTRACT OF THE PROPOSED STUDY

Abstract of the Proposed Study

The major purposes of this study are: (1) to describe and explain fully the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in an innovative senior high school; and (2) to generate grounded theory about the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors in an innovative senior high school. The sample school chosen to participate in this study is a nationally known leader in implementing individualized learning programs which are compatible with the IGE/S model developed at the Wisconsin Research and Development Center (Klausmeier, 1979). The data of the study will be gathered by means of an ethnographic case study utilizing participant observation, open-ended interviewing, and document analysis. The researcher, together with two co-researchers, will spend three weeks on site and will participate in the social system of the school. At the end of the first week, the three researchers will retreat from the field and determine some tentative hypotheses based on the data. Those working hypotheses will be further tested against the data collected over the next two weeks, refined, limited, and finally stated as propositions. The study will be limited by the biases and abilities of the researchers, the time spent in collecting the data, and the perceptions of the respondents regarding the study. This study should provide a clear understanding of the administrative organization, processes, and

behavior within an innovative senior high school, the impact that the administration has on the school, and generalizable propositions that may be necessary for an innovative senior high school to be successful.

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

I. Study and Access Information

   A. Identification of the researchers

      1. Who we are

      2. Affiliation with the Wisconsin Research and Development Center and relationship to the specific school

   B. Relationship of the respondent to the study

      1. Why you were selected

      2. Anonymity of responses

      3. How the responses will be used

      4. Human subject release

   C. Purpose of the study

      1. General purpose of study: relationship to other educational research and to the specific school

      2. Specific purpose of study: examination of the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in the specific school

II. Biographical Data

   A. Educational history of respondent

   B. Community/work history of respondent

   C. Specific history of respondent at the school

   D. Compare and contrast previous history with current experience.

III. Central Open-ended Questions

  A. Discuss the strengths and positive aspects of the school

  B. Discuss the weaknesses and concerns about the school

  C. Discuss the major issues facing the school

IV. Focused Questions

  A. Discuss the organization and structure of this school

    1. Organization structure of the administration, staff and students

    2. Leadership of the administrators

    3. Decision-making processes utilized

  B. Discuss the curriculum philosophy and design at this school

    1. Individualized schooling

    2. Student achievement/cognitive development

    3. Student attitudes/affective development

    4. Community learning experience and work experience

    5. Basic skills development

    6. Curriculum development

    7. Resources adequate

    8. Administrative role

    9. Extracurricular activities

    10. Schedule

    11. Continuous progress

    12. Research

C. Discuss the administration-staff relations

1. Teacher organizations
2. Participation in decision making
3. Supervision/evaluation
4. Staff socialization
5. Staffing needs
6. School climate
7. Morale

D. Discuss the teacher-advisor program

1. Teacher role
2. Guidance role
3. Discipline
4. Guidance and counseling

E. Discuss the administrative impact on the home-school-community relations

1. Communication
2. Student achievement reports
3. Participation/involvement
4. Administrative role
5. Sources of information

F. Discuss the evolution of the school

1. Change processes
2. Attitudes toward change
3. Relations with other agencies

4. Administrative role

5. Research and development

V. Check list--administrative impact on the following topics:

VI. Referrals

Who are some other knowledgeable and informed persons who would be willing to assist in this study and perhaps be interviewed?

Would you be willing to serve as a reference for me to that person by either writing, calling, or allowing me to use your name on introduction?

CALL BACK ACCESS--May we call you back to check for clarification or further data needs?

VII. Follow-up letter of thanks.

APPENDIX C

REVISED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

REVISED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

I. Study and Access Information

  A. Identification of the researchers

    1. Who we are

    2. Affiliation with the Wisconsin Research and Development Center and relationship to the specific school

  B. Relationship of the respondent to the study

    1. Why you were selected

    2. Anonymity of responses

    3. How the responses will be used

    4. Human subject release

  C. Purpose of the study

    1. General purpose of study: relationship to other educational research and to the specific school

    2. Specific purpose of study: examination of the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in the specific school

II. Biographical Data

  A. Educational history of respondent

  B. Community/work history of respondent

  C. Specific history of respondent at the school

  D. Compare and contrast previous history with current experience

III. Central Open-ended Questions

A. Discuss the strengths and positive aspects of the school.

B. Discuss the weaknesses and concerns about the school.

C. Discuss the major issues facing the school.

IV. Focused Questions

A. What effect does the advisor system have on the school's program?

B. Describe the staff orientation and development programs.

C. How have the changes in leadership affected the school?

D. Describe the principal's leadership style.

E. How does the facility (i.e., instructional space) affect the school's program?

F. How are students involved in the decision-making process of the school?

G. What is the staff's role in the decision-making process of the school?

H. What are the reasons why continuous progress does not work for all staff and students?

I. Describe the school's atmosphere and what causes it.

J. How are parents involved in the school?

K. What is the impact of the school design (i.e., total plan) and size on the school's program?

L. Describe the role of the district board of education and central office on the school's program.

APPENDIX D

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Research Study

STUDIES OF ADMINISTRATION AND ORGANIZATION FOR INSTRUCTION: ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL FOR INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION

Informed Consent Form

The research study in which you are participating is designed to ascertain the administration's, teachers', students', and community's perceptions of the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in high schools. The purpose of the study is to utilize ethnographic research to analyze administrative impact on high schools to determine what administrative acts may be necessary for an innovative high school to be successful. In conducting the study, the researchers will interview selected individuals, observe school activities, and analyze pertinent school documents.

The anonymity of all participants is guaranteed and no individual, school, or school district will be identified in any reports of the research. It is expected that the results of this research will have both theoretical and practical value to the field of education and to the public at large.

The University of Wisconsin-Madison has formally assured the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (DHEW) that it will assure the protection of any human being exposed to risk in any project or program that DHEW or any of its agencies has been requested to support. A copy of this assurance will be made available to you upon request.

There are no known discomforts or risks associated with any of the procedures in which you will participate and such procedures are in conformity with accepted professional practice.

Any questions you may have concerning the procedures to be utilized in this study will be answered. You are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation in this study at any time.

Please sign below to indicate your consent to participate in the study.

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Reading and Communication

Marvin J. Fruth
Area Chairperson
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10/80